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CANADIAN CIVICS

R. S. JENKINS

JL 65
1915
J52
1915

SECOND
EDITION

THE COMPASS
CLARK CO.
LIMITED
TORONTO

Stasia Thonitov.

CANADIAN CIVICS

BY

R. S. JENKINS, MA.

Honour all men. Love the Brotherhood. Fear God. Honour
the King.—*Bible.*

QUEBEC EDITION

REVISED BY

I. GAMMELL, B.A.

TORONTO:

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2. It was proposed that there should be one central parliament, to control matters in which all the provinces were interested.
 3. Each province was to control its own local affairs.
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PREFACE TO NEW EDITION.

It seems now hardly necessary to plead the cause of civics in the schools. On the other hand, there is needed a fuller discussion of the methods of teaching the subject. It is generally agreed that no text-book is required during the early years of the public school course. The child will gain an idea of what government is by examples drawn from the home and the school. As he grows older he can be taught to observe some of the work of government as performed by the municipality. He may see what roads are being made or improved, what side-walks are being put down, and what protects the community from the danger of fire. But beyond the municipal field he cannot very well proceed by direct observation. New principles appear. The whole area of government becomes extraordinarily complex. The discipline of the party system, the solidarity of the cabinet, the parallel activities of parliament and legislature, and the glamour of the monarchical tradition have to be studied definitely like new processes in arithmetic or new chapters in history. It will be seen that the chief aim of this book is to help the pupil at this stage of his progress. The larger part of the text is devoted to an explanation of the federal system and its relation to the provincial system. Topics XII-XIV are added for the purpose of reference and completeness, and for the use of senior pupils and study clubs.

THEORY OF THE EARTH

It is a well known fact that the earth is a sphere, and that the surface of the earth is not perfectly smooth, but is covered with mountains, valleys, rivers, and oceans. The theory of the earth is a branch of geology, and it deals with the origin and development of the earth and its various parts. The theory of the earth is a very old one, and it has been the subject of much speculation and debate. In the past, many different theories have been proposed to explain the origin of the earth, but the most widely accepted theory is the theory of evolution. This theory states that the earth and all the life on it have evolved from a common ancestor. The theory of evolution is supported by many lines of evidence, including the fossil record, the study of living organisms, and the study of the earth's geology. The theory of evolution is a very important theory, and it has changed our understanding of the world in many ways. It has shown us that we are not alone in the universe, and that we are part of a larger system. It has also shown us that the earth is a dynamic place, and that it is constantly changing. The theory of evolution is a very powerful tool, and it has helped us to understand the world in a new way. It is a theory that is still being tested and refined, but it is one of the most important theories in the history of science.

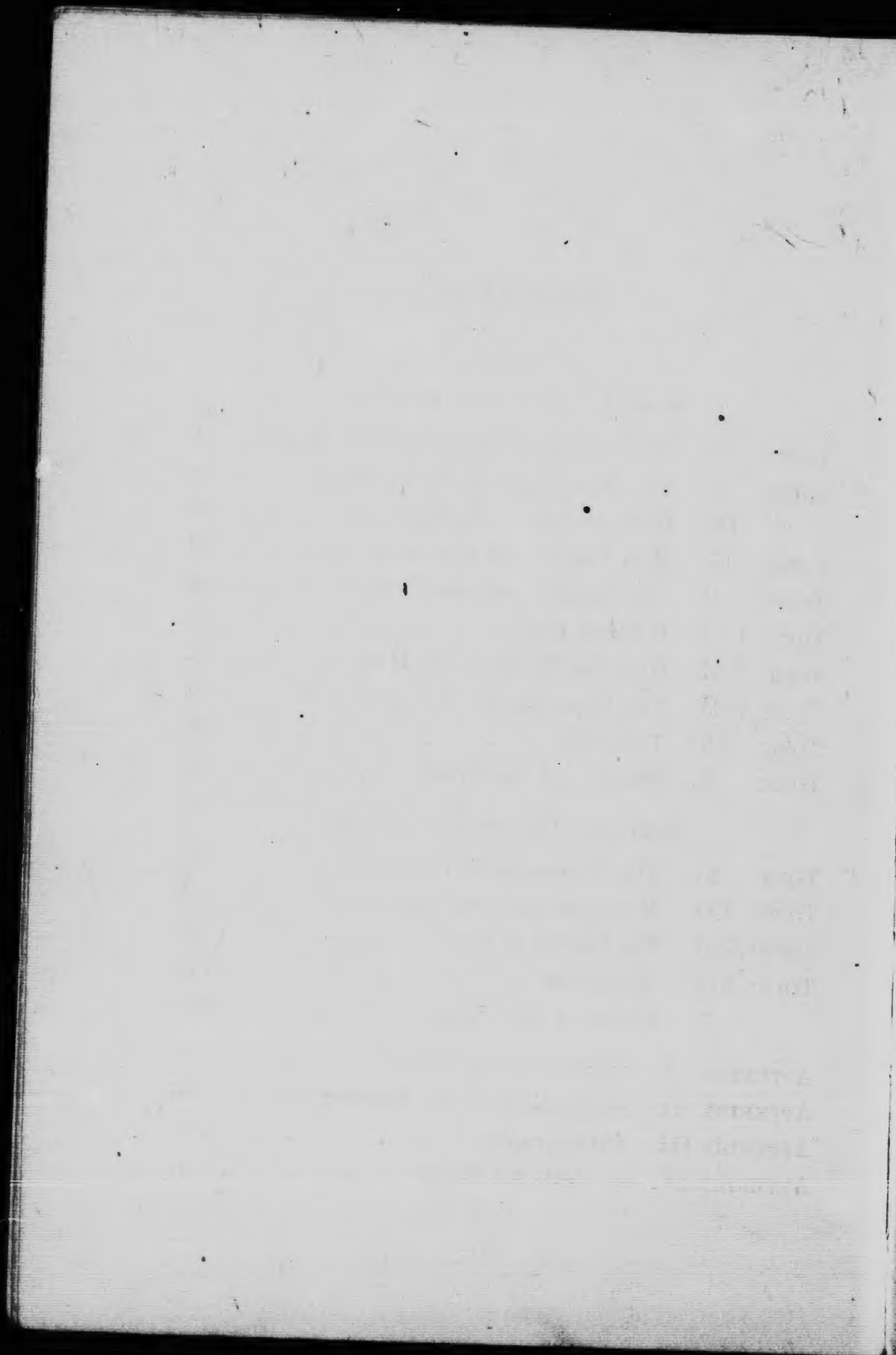
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CANADIAN CIVICS

PART I.—NATIONAL AFFAIRS

TOPIC I.

THE OUTSIDE NATIONS AND THE EMPIRE

1. The Nations

When we look abroad upon the world, we observe that it has numerous divisions which bear the name of "countries" and which are occupied by "nations." Some of these divisions are large, such as the United States and Russia, while others are small, such as Switzerland and Greece. But power and importance cannot be estimated exclusively by extent of territory. For instance, some of the powers though occupying a part of Europe of only moderate area may properly be included among the great nations of the world.

There are, however, very few countries strong enough to defend themselves successfully against a foreign foe. It sometimes happens that weaker nations owe their independence to the sense of justice of the more powerful, but more often to

the mutual jealousy existing amongst the latter. None is willing to see any of its neighbours grow very strong. Consequently, if a smaller country is invaded by a more powerful it is very probable that outside assistance will be given the former in one way or another.

Thus efforts are constantly being made by the nations to preserve what is commonly called the "balance of power". The stronger nations of the world are known as "the great powers" and include Great Britain, the United States, Japan, and a few other European powers.

2. The Kinds of Government.

After what has been said, we can describe in a general way what a "nation" is. It is a united body of people occupying a certain territory which is called a "country." Further, matters are so arranged that one man, or a small group of men, acts as its head, and is its highest representative in its dealings with other nations. Now the question is, how can a very large number of people, in some cases hundreds of millions, be induced to act together so that they will form one nation? The answer

is that this result is brought about by what is called "government," and in this book we shall be studying what our government is and how it holds our nation together.

To us in our day it would seem quite natural for a number of persons to agree to work together and to help one another in many ways, such as giving aid in defence against enemies, forming treaties with friends, and building roads and bridges or making other improvements. But we learn from history that the present arrangements by which these and many other things are done, were arrived at only after centuries of effort. Moreover, some nations have not made as much progress in government as we, and we shall see that we ourselves have not yet reached perfection.

If we read history and observe how governments have grown up, we shall be inclined to place them in two classes. One class will include those in which the head of the nation, generally called a king or an emperor, is always a member of a particular family, and in which the son, no matter what sort of man he may be, usually

succeeds the father. This kind of government is called "monarchical," and Great Britain may be cited as an example. The other kind of government is the "republican," where the head, often known as the "president," is chosen from the general body of the people by the citizens themselves, or by persons directly representing them. This is the form existing in the United States and France. It is worthy of note that often men who are born poor and in a humble position rise to be presidents of the republics.

The better division, however, is into the two classes, "despotic" and "popular." In a despotic government, the ruler and a small group of men associated with him carry on the business of the nation without consulting the wishes of the people, while in a popular government, the rulers, whoever they may be, must govern as the people wish. The government of Great Britain is monarchical and popular, while that of the United States is republican and popular. There are not many purely despotic governments now in the world, but some of the monarchical

governments of Asia and Africa and some of the republican governments of South America still belong to that class.

3. The Empire and the Colonies.

The name "Great Britain" is ordinarily used as the short form for the full title, "The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland." Great Britain is the ruling state, or division, in the Empire to which we belong. In dealings with other nations, except in commercial and some other matters, Great Britain acts for the whole Empire. Divisions of the Empire, such as Canada, may have representatives in making treaties and arrangements with other nations on any matter which closely concerns them. But these are appointed as representatives of Great Britain as well, and are considered as such by foreign states.

It is plain that at present a great change is going on in the Empire. Some think that after a time the several divisions that are in the same position as ourselves will be placed on an equal footing with the ruling division, Great Britain, and that some way will be devised of

making them all work together as one nation when dealing with the rest of the world. Others believe that this plan of "allied nations" is not practicable, and that, if we try to carry it out, it will lead to the breaking up of the Empire. Here is one of our great problems and no one yet can see a good solution.

Our Empire is not an "empire" in the strict sense of the term. It has received this name solely on account of its enormous size, for its head is not an emperor but a king. Though the king is called an emperor as well, it is only as the ruler of India that he has a right to the title.

All the divisions of the Empire, except the British Isles and India, were originally called "colonies," or settlements, because emigrants went from Great Britain to take up land, or *settle*, in them. All of them were at first governed by men whom Great Britain appointed for the purpose. The colonists had very little to do with the management of their own public affairs.

But afterwards those colonies which possessed a sufficiently large and suitable population were

allowed to govern themselves, and they have all established popular forms of government as much like that of Great Britain as possible. Such colonies have long been known as self-governing colonies, but they have lately received the special name of "dominions." This is the name which we chose when the separate colonies of Canada, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia were united into one large country, the Dominion of Canada.

The word "colony" is open to objection and we usually speak of ourselves as a "nation." Some object to the name "nation," because it ordinarily means an "independent nation" or "sovereign state," and we do not claim to be that, but desire to be part of the Empire. Its use may be defended, because it is the nearest suitable word for a new condition of affairs, and we give the term a special meaning, just as the people of the United States have given a special meaning to the word "state." A "state" like New York is not an independent state, but is subject to the government of the whole United States at Washington. The chief "dominions" in the Empire besides Canada, are Australia

(called "Commonwealth)," New Zealand, Newfoundland, and the Union of South Africa.

On the other hand, the colonies which have not a population suitable for self-government, as those situated in the tropics where the native races are not highly civilized, are placed, either wholly or partly, under the administration of persons chosen by Great Britain. Such are called "crown colonies."

But sometimes native races are left under their own rulers, Great Britain maintaining a general oversight through a specially appointed representative. This kind of government is known as a "protectorate." An example is Egypt, which has its own native ruler or Sultan, as he is called. This country formerly belonged to Turkey, but was finally made a part of our Empire during the Great War.

It may be said that in the British Empire there is every kind of government, from the most highly popular to the most despotic. But whatever may be the form, Great Britain

endeavours to administer it in such a manner as to make possible for each of the vast number of races and tribes under the imperial sway the greatest amount of happiness and prosperity.

NOTE.—The name "Great Britain" has been employed throughout. But it is to be observed that the name "England" is often used for the whole "United Kingdom," because of its being that of the largest division. The term "Britain" is also employed. "Imperial Government" is frequently used for "Government of Great Britain" or "British Government," because it is the supreme or highest government of the Empire. "Greater Britain" is a common newspaper term for the colonies. Its origin is obvious. The actual title of the king is: "George the Fifth, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India."

QUESTIONS.

1. What nations are called the "great powers"? Why are they so called?
2. What does "government" do for the nation?
3. Mention and describe the chief kinds of government.
4. What is an empire? Why do we call the British Empire by that name?
5. What are "crown colonies," "protectorates," and "dominions"? Give examples of each.
6. Read over and try to understand the lines quoted from Shakespeare.

ENGLAND.

This royal throne of kings, this scepter'd isle,
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
This other Eden, demi-paradise,
This fortress built by Nature for herself
Against infection and the hand of war,
This happy breed of men, this little world,
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Which serves it in the office of a wall
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands,
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England

—Shakespeare, *King Richard II*, Act II, Sc. 1

TOPIC II.

THE DOMINION AND THE PROVINCES.

1. Federal System of Government.

Our system of government is what is known as a confederation, and in this respect it resembles that of the United States and Australia and differs from that of Great Britain and France. The settled part of Canada is divided into nine provinces, each having a government of its own.

A provincial government has the duty of looking after certain definite matters which concern the province alone, and which it is believed can best be managed by such a body of local men familiar with local needs. In a country of vast extent such as ours, the provinces differ very much from one another, in their position, some being on the sea and others inland; in their physical features, some being mountainous and others consisting of prairie; and in their inhabitants, some containing chiefly people whose ancestors came from the British Isles, others possessing a more mixed population, and one, Quebec, having a great majority of persons of French descent. Consequently, it is plain that with respect to many things laws must be different in different provinces in order to suit the varying conditions.

On the other hand, all matters which were thought by the founders of our constitution to concern the whole body of Canadians, or those about which it was felt more suitable laws could be made by a group of men representing the entire country, were left to be managed

by a central government, usually called the Dominion or Federal Government.

2. ^{Federal.} Subjects of Dominion Legislation.

Now in order that there should be no doubt as to which government, Dominion or provincial, had the right to make laws in regard to particular matters, it was agreed that the Dominion should deal with everything which was not expressly assigned to the control of the provinces. Then "for greater certainty" there was drawn up the following list of subjects about which the government of the Dominion alone has the power to "legislate" (that is, make laws):

(1) The public debt and property, (2) trade and commerce, (3) the raising of money by any kind of taxation, (4) the borrowing of money, (5) the postal service, (6) the taking of the census, (7) military and naval matters, (8) the payment of the "civil service," that is, the clerks and other officials employed by the government, (9) lighthouses, (10) navigation and shipping, (11) quarantine and marine hospitals, (12) fisheries, (13) ferries, except when

entirely within a province, (14) currency and coinage, (15) banking and paper money, (16) savings banks, (17) weights and measures, (18) bills of exchange and promissory notes, (19) interest, (20) legal tender, that is, what shall be accepted as money in payment for anything, (21) bankruptcy, (22) patents for inventions, (23) copyrights on books, etc., (24) Indians and Indian lands, (25) naturalization, that is, the giving of the rights of citizenship to foreigners, (26) marriage and divorce, (27) the criminal law, except the constitution of the courts of law, (28) penitentiaries, (29) matters expressly stated as not belonging to the provinces.

3. Subjects of Provincial Legislation.

To the provincial governments has been assigned the definite list of subjects given below. They cannot legislate about any matter not mentioned in this list; but they alone can legislate about those which are included in it. The list is:

(1) The changing of the constitution of the province, except in regard to the office of

lieutenant-governor, (2) direct taxation, (3) the borrowing of money for the province, (4) the civil service of the province, (5) the public lands, if the province owns its lands, (6) the prisons and reformatories of the province, (7) hospitals, asylums, and charitable institutions, (8) municipal institutions. (9) licenses such as those of taverns, shops, and auctioneers, (10) local works and undertakings, except lines of steamships, railways, canals, telegraphs, and other works and undertakings extending outside the province, and such works which, although wholly inside the province, are declared by the Dominion parliament to be for the general advantage of Canada, (11) the incorporation of companies for business in the province, (12) the solemnization of marriage, (13) property and civil rights, (14) the administration of justice and procedure in civil matters in the courts, (15) punishment by fine and imprisonment, in case any provincial law is broken, and (16) generally all matters of a merely local or private nature.

§ The subject of education must be added to this provincial list. But if a province before

it entered confederation has passed laws to establish separate schools, it must always allow these schools to be carried on. Consequently, the Roman Catholics of Ontario and the Protestants of Quebec can never be forced to give up the separate schools which they at present possess. Further, the subjects of agriculture and immigration may be dealt with by both the Dominion and the provinces. But if the Dominion law and the provincial law do not agree in whole or in part, the Dominion law is the one which has force.

What happens if a province enacts a law on a subject with which it has no right to deal? If a person breaks such a law, can he be punished? He can allow the matter to go to trial in a court, and it is there determined whether the province has a right to enact such a law or not. If the province has no such right, the person wins his case and cannot be punished. In very important matters a suit of this kind will be carried from a lower court to a higher, until it is finally decided by the highest court in the Empire, the Privy Council in England.

4. Dominion Control of Provincial Legislation.

But there is another way by which not only law beyond the right of a province to make, but even one which comes within its right, can be entirely set aside. This is to be found in what is known as the power of "disallowance." The Dominion government may, if it desires, "disallow," or set aside, any provincial law provided that it does so within a year after receiving a copy of such law from the province. This is a power which should not be used very often, because it is very natural for the people of a province to resent what looks like too much interference with their own local affairs.

5. Imperial Control of Dominion Legislation.

The government of Great Britain has likewise the right to disallow a law enacted by the Dominion if it is considered that this law will cause injury to the Empire, is contrary to treaties that have been made with foreign nations, or is beyond the right of our parliament to pass.

6. Uncertainties as to Dominion and Provincial Powers.

Now it may seem as if everything had been carefully provided for, so that no dispute could ever arise between a province and the Dominion in regard to the subjects about which they have a right to legislate. But it is just here that some of the greatest difficulties have been encountered. Many matters were not carefully enough stated in the constitution, and, as a consequence, the courts have had to do a great deal of work in determining whether the Dominion or the provinces have the power to legislate in certain cases. For example, one of the very important questions for a long time in doubt was, how far the provinces could go in making laws about the sale of intoxicating liquors. This question has been at last decided, and it is now known that the provinces are allowed to restrict and practically to prohibit the sale in certain well-defined ways.

In concluding this topic, we may observe that the laws of our province have much more to do with our ordinary life and its happiness than

have the laws of the Dominion. For what our city or other local municipality asks from us or does for us, how our schools are conducted, how property is kept or sold, and a vast number of such matters as most intimately concern us, all depend upon the laws, good or bad, which our province makes.

NOTE.—The "constitution" is the name given to the whole body or collection of rules in accordance with which the government of a country is conducted. In Great Britain these rules are not anywhere written out together in one document. They are gathered from what British governments have done in the past even back to distant ages, and have come to be pretty well understood. If there is doubt as to what to do in a particular case, or if there really is no rule, a certain decision is adopted by the government as to the matter. This decision may lead up to a new rule for the future, and is called a "precedent." In the United States, however, a great number of the rules of government are written out in a formal document, and are changed rarely and with difficulty. So we speak of Great Britain as having an "unwritten" constitution, and of the United States as having largely a "written" constitution. Canada has a written constitution in the "British North America Act," which was passed by the parliament of Great Britain at our request in 1867, so that the various separate provinces of those days might be formed into a union or "confederation," and be able to work together with a federal government over them all. But there are a multitude of points which our written constitution does not cover, and so we follow and establish precedents as well, and also go back to the precedents set by the governments of Great Britain.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why is the federal system of government suitable for Canada?
2. Tell in a general way what classes of subjects come under the jurisdiction of the Dominion and of the provincial governments. Illustrate your answer by examples.
3. To what extent can the provinces deal with the subjects of education and immigration?
4. How can the Dominion control the legislation of the provinces? How can Great Britain control Dominion legislation?
5. What difficulty has arisen in the working of our federal system?
6. What is meant by the "constitution"? What is a "precedent"?
7. Write a composition taking as your subject the thought contained in the following lines:

THE STATE.

What constitutes a state?
Not high-raised battlement or laboured mound,
Thick wall or moated gate;
Not cities proud with spires and turrets crowned;
Not bays and broad-armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.

No! men, high-minded men,
With powers as far above dull brutes endued
In forest, brake, or den,
As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude,—
Men who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing, dare maintain,
Prevent the long-aimed blow,
And crush the tyrant while they rend the chain.

—William Jones.

TOPIC III.

HOW THE LAWS ARE MADE.

1. Legislation.

In the government of a country there are three kinds of work to be done. One is the making of the laws, and another is the carrying out of the laws. The third kind of work is that which the courts do in deciding what the law is in particular cases that are brought before them.

Let us for the present consider only the first kind of work, the making of the laws. We may well do so, because in our country the men who carry out the laws are also among those who make the laws. In the United States, on the other hand, the men who carry out the laws,

namely, the president and his cabinet, may have little part in making them.

2. Parliament.

The body of men who legislate for the Dominion is called the "parliament" of Canada. Parliament consists of the king and the two houses of parliament, the Senate and the House of Commons. The king cannot, of course, be present here in Canada, and so some one is appointed to act for him. This representative of the king is known as the governor-general. Yet it must always be remembered that the king is considered to be the direct ruler of Canada. All laws are made in his name, and not in that of the governor-general. Moreover, the governor-general is said to give not his own but the king's assent to a bill, before it becomes law.

3. Governor-General.

The Governor-General is appointed by the British government, and is generally some well known man in Great Britain. He is usually a member of the House of Lords. No Canadian has ever been appointed, but it cannot be said that any rule has been made as yet in regard

to the matter. Some day the question will come up for decision, and there will be a precedent set either for or against the appointment of a Canadian to this high office.

The Governor-General acts towards the houses of parliament of Canada in exactly the same way as the king acts towards the houses of parliament of Great Britain. The king nowadays has no power to do anything but what the houses of parliament wish. If they pass a bill, he must assent to it.

He does not sit in either of the houses, and is quite apart from them. But the leader of the government, that is, the person whom the House of Commons is willing to obey, is expected to tell the king about all important matters that are being discussed in parliament. The king can give advice to the leader of the government and can also warn him if in his opinion the latter is pursuing a policy which might prove detrimental to the best interests of the nation. The king cannot refuse, however, to do what parliament wishes. All discussions between the king and the leader of the government are kept absolutely secret. So nobody really knows what the king's opinions are.

Since he must do what parliament and its leader desire, he is never blamed if a mistake is made. Consequently, there is at the head of the nation a person who is regarded as above and beyond all the fierce struggle of politics. If the nation is dissatisfied, it blames only the leader of the government and those who support him in parliament.

Sometimes, however, our Governor-General, when a bill is sent to him after it has passed the two Houses, may say that he does not give the king's assent to it, but reserves it for the king's decision, that is, of course, for the decision of the government of Great Britain. The governor-general will never reserve a bill, unless he has a good reason for so doing, such as, believing that it will be hurtful to the Empire as a whole, that it is contrary to treaties with foreign nations, or that it is beyond the right of our parliament to pass. Two years are allowed for the British government to consider whether the king's assent shall be given to a bill reserved in this way. If it is given, the bill becomes law, but, if not, the bill does not become law.

*what power has the British
government in passing a bill*

As has been mentioned before, the British government can likewise disallow a law already passed and assented to by the governor-general. So its powers are very great, but they are used carefully, or there would soon arise much ill-feeling in Canada against Britain. In the same way there would be ill-feeling in the provinces, if the Dominion government used its power of disallowance without proper care. All trouble is usually avoided, because the governments concerned earnestly strive to meet one another's views as far as possible. In the end matters can generally be arranged in a very friendly way, even when the governments have not at first been in agreement upon certain points.

4. The Senate.

It is in the houses of parliament that the laws are made; for it is now plain that the governor-general, although he is at the head of the nation, has scarcely any real power. Of the two Houses, the Senate is very much less important than the Commons. The Senate has, however, the same right of legislation as the Commons, except in one important matter. But usually it

does not try to do much work beyond accepting after more or less discussion and amendment the bills already passed by the House of Commons. Later we shall learn why it is that the Senate is not a more important parliamentary body.

5. The House of Commons.

The laws are really made in the House of Commons. The leader of the government is nearly always a member of this House and guides it in its work. If he should happen to be a member of the Senate, he must have some one recognized as the leader of the House of Commons in his place. But such an arrangement is not a safe one in our parliament. Besides the leader of the government, most of the members of his cabinet, that is, those who are directly associated with him in the government of the country, have seats in the House of Commons. We usually speak of the leader and his cabinet as the "government." They must either have the support of a majority of the members of the House of Commons, or give up their places to those who are able to obtain a majority.

It is their duty, while they are in power, to see that the laws which are necessary for carrying on the work of the nation, are properly passed by parliament. Bills introduced at the wish of the government are called "government measures." They may be brought in either by members of the government themselves or by private members in whom they have confidence. If a government measure does not pass, the government must resign or ask the governor-general to allow a new election to be held. Therefore, the defeat of a government measure in the House is a very serious matter and hardly ever happens. For the government usually finds out beforehand whether its supporters are willing to allow the bill to pass or not.

But sometimes the members of the government may feel that a certain measure which they desire to bring in, is so important that it must be placed before the House, and yet that it is in danger of being rejected. What they will probably do, will be to endeavour to put this measure, if possible, in such form

as to render it more acceptable to their followers and induce them to change their minds. Moreover, supporters of the government do not like to see their side beaten, and besides, members of the House do not usually wish to have an election held before the regular time, because elections are uncertain and expensive. Therefore, the government generally finds it an easy matter to persuade its followers to assist in passing all the legislation that is required.

In addition to the measures which the government introduces, a great many bills are brought in by private members. Some of these pass, many do not pass, while others never really come before the House at all. We shall be able to understand this part of the subject better when later we study how parliament does its work.

NOTE.—Before a proposed law has passed the houses of parliament and has been assented to by the governor-general, it is known as a "bill." Afterwards it is called an "act of parliament" or a "statute." An act of parliament may come into force as a "law," as soon as it has passed the Houses and received the royal assent, or it may be intended to come into force at a later time.

QUESTIONS.

1. What are the three kinds of work to be done in the governing of a country?
2. Of what does parliament consist?
3. By whom is the governor-general appointed? What are his duties? Who is the governor-general at the present time?
4. When may the governor-general "reserve" a bill?
5. What special meaning does the word "government" have in politics?
6. What are "government measures"?
7. What is the difference between a "bill" and an "act"?
8. Commit to memory the following lines:

You ask me, why, tho' ill at ease,
Within this region I subsist,
Whose spirits falter in the mist,
And languish for the purple seas.

It is the land that freemen till,
That sober-suited Freedom chose,
The land, where girt with friends or foes
A man may speak the thing he will;

A land of settled government,
A land of just and old renown,
Where Freedom slowly broadens down
From precedent to precedent.

—Tennyson.

TOPIC IV.

HOW PARLIAMENT DOES BUSINESS.

1. The Speaker.

We shall now take up more fully the study of the two houses of parliament, and see how they carry on their work and how the members of each are chosen. We shall speak chiefly of the House of Commons, and mention the Senate only when the latter differs in some important respect from the Commons.

The House of ~~Commons~~ ^{Chairman of Senate.} is like any public meeting, and must have a chairman to see that business is conducted in a proper way. The chairman is called the "speaker." He is elected by the House, when it first meets after the parliamentary elections. He is one of the supporters of the government, because the government have the majority in the House, and thus can always secure the election of one of their own friends. But as soon as he becomes speaker. he is expected to be impartial, that is, to see that all members are fairly treated in the debates, no matter whether they are supporters of the

government or not. There is also elected a deputy or assistant speaker.

The speaker of the Senate is not elected by the Senate, but is appointed by the "Governor-General in Council," which means, as we shall find out later, the government.

2. Other Officers of the Houses.

Chairman of the House
There are certain other officers in the Houses, who are not members of parliament, but are appointed to help with the carrying on of business. For example, there is a clerk, with many assistants under him, who has charge of the journals or records of what the House has done, the translation of documents, and a great many other such matters.

Another officer in the Commons is the sergeant-at-arms, who is in some respects the policeman of the House. If a member will not obey the speaker or is disorderly, the sergeant-at-arms arrests him or has him removed. He also looks after the furniture of the House, and has charge of the pages, or little messenger boys, who wait on the members, carrying books, taking messages and the like.

It is very interesting to watch these boys running about on their various duties, while a meeting of the House is going on. Another duty of the sergeant-at-arms is to walk in front of the speaker on the proper occasions, carrying the mace, the symbol of the House's authority.

3. The Speech from the Throne.

Parliament must meet at least once a year. The Governor-General who, as always, follows in this matter the advice of the leader of the government, sets the day for parliament to assemble. When the day comes, he himself or some person representing him, generally the Chief Justice of Canada, goes in great state to the parliament buildings, accompanied by a bodyguard of soldiers. He takes his seat on a throne in the chamber where the Senate meets, and then sends a message to the members of the House of Commons to leave their own chamber and come to the Senate.

When they arrive, he reads a short address in English and French which mentions what business the government is going to ask parliament

to do during the session. This is called the "speech from the throne." It is not written by the Governor-General, as one might suppose, but by the leader of the government. When this brief ceremony is over the Governor-General leaves, and the members of the House of Commons return to their own chamber. In due time the address is discussed and a reply to it is prepared.

All these doings seem rather strange and formal to us, nowadays, but they meant a great deal long ago in England. In those times the speech was a real one from the king himself, and often parliament was very unwilling to do what he desired. So the reply was then a very real thing too, and was drawn up by members sometimes at the risk of their lives. But all this is long since changed, though the old forms are still kept up.

4. Good Manners in Parliament.

While speaking in the House of Commons, a member must always address his remarks to the speaker and not to the other members. He is not allowed to call any member by his name, but

must describe him as "the honourable member for North York," or "the honourable member for Calgary," or whatever the member's constituency may be. This is done so that debates in the House may be as dignified as possible, and that members may be less tempted to say evil things of one another.

It is the duty of the speaker to check the use of all improper terms in debate. For example, no member, no matter who he may be or how much he thinks himself to be in the right, is allowed to call another member a "scoundrel." In moments of excitement members sometimes so far forget themselves as to use such violent language, but the speaker of the House always requires that an apology be made.

5. Debate.

As in any public meeting, a question is brought before the House in the form of a motion made by one member and seconded by another, except that two days before, notice must be given that such a motion will be made. In the debate on a motion each member is

allowed to speak only once. The mover is, however, permitted to reply.

But when a freer and fuller discussion is desired so that all points may be brought out, the House goes into "committee." This is always done in the case of bills, since it is advisable to have all details studied closely as a means of preventing mistakes. When the House goes into committee, the speaker leaves the chair, and the deputy speaker or a chairman presides in his place. The House may then be said to be in its "working clothes."

6. A Division.

3. When the debate is over, and it is uncertain whether the majority of the House is for or against the motion, a "division" is demanded. All the absent members are called in, for it is the bad habit of some of the members to remain out of the House a good deal of the time and, when summoned, to rush in to vote without having heard very much of the debate.

When all are seated, the speaker asks those who are in favour of the motion to stand. The clerks then take down the name of each member

who is standing. Next those who are against the motion are requested to rise, and their names are taken down in the same way. When the names are all counted, the speaker states that the motion has been "lost" or "carried," as the case may be. The speaker himself never takes part in the voting, unless the votes for and against a motion are exactly equal. In that case he gives his vote and decides the question.

7. The Senate and the Commons.

When a bill has passed the House of Commons, it is sent on to the Senate, which considers it in the same way as the Commons have already done. If it passes the Senate it then goes to the Governor-General to be assented to in the name of the king. Sometimes, however, the Senate makes changes in a bill, and if the two Houses cannot agree about these, the bill is dropped. But if the Houses reach an agreement, the bill is sent on to the Governor-General as before.

8. Committees.

Besides the "Committee of the Whole House," which has already been mentioned, there are smaller committees, or groups of

members, chosen to consider particular bills or other matters and to report their opinion about them to the House. Each committee has its chairman, and it does its work in the same way as the committee of the whole house. If a bill does not pass the committee which has been chosen to study and discuss it, there is little probability that it will pass the House, at least during the existing session of parliament. In such a case you will probably read in the newspapers that it has been "killed in committee."

9. Supremacy of the House of Commons.

The House of Commons holds the purse of the nation, and this is the true reason why the government must have its support or resign. Unless the House is willing, no tax can be collected by the Dominion government, and no money paid out for any purpose beyond a few matters expressly mentioned in the constitution. It is evident that the work of government could not long go on, if there were no money to pay those employed in the public service, such as the clerks in the parliament buildings

and the Dominion officials throughout the country.

A bill that provides for the paying of money or the levying of a tax, must first be passed in the House of Commons. Then it is sent to the Senate, which cannot make any change in it, but must either pass it as it stands, or else reject it altogether. Further, even in the House of Commons, no private member can propose such a bill, but only a member of the government. For the government knows, or should know, how much money it needs and can ask for the proper amount, while a private member could hardly have such accurate knowledge. Besides, if the government did not have this matter entirely in its own hands, it could not fairly be blamed, when mistakes were made in levying too high a tax on the people or in paying out money improperly.

It will be seen from what has been said that the House of Commons is practically supreme. If it does not approve of what the government is doing, it can stop everything by simply shutting up the purse of the nation. But

nowadays the House has never to resort to such an extreme measure. All it has to do is to show by a vote that it no longer has "confidence" in the government, and the latter at once resigns.

10. Senators.

We shall now study how the members of parliament are chosen. A senator is appointed by the "Governor-General in Council," that is, by the government. He remains a member of the Senate so long as he lives, unless he resigns, stays away from parliament for two sessions together, leaves Canada and becomes a citizen of a foreign country, fails in business, commits a crime, or goes to reside in a province other than the one for which he has been appointed.

Before he can be chosen, he must be at least thirty years of age, be a British subject, be worth at least \$4,000, and live in the province for which he is to be appointed. A Quebec senator must also live in the particular division of the province for which he is selected, or own property there. The number of Senators is:

For Ontario.....	24
“ Quebec.....	24
“ Nova Scotia.....	10
“ New Brunswick.....	10
“ Prince Edward Island.....	4
“ Manitoba.....	6
“ Saskatchewan.....	6
“ Alberta.....	6
“ British Columbia.....	6
	<hr/>
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11. Members of the House of Commons.

Members of the House of Commons are elected by the people of Canada. But not everybody has a vote. The laws about the matter differ in the different provinces, but, as a rule, all men of the full age of twenty-one years, who are British subjects and are not criminals or insane, have the right to vote. In one or two of the provinces it is necessary also to own a small amount of property, or to pay rent to a certain amount, or to fulfil some other conditions before being allowed to vote. Indians do not usually have the right to vote. In 1917 women voted for the first time in parliamentary elections.

Before a person can be elected to the House of Commons, he must be a British subject, but need not own property or live in the province or district for which he seeks to be elected. If a man who has committed a crime is elected, the House of Commons will not allow him to take his seat, and the district for which he is elected may just as well be without a representative.

12. The Number of Members in the Commons.

The number of members in the House of Commons at present (1926) is:

For Ontario.....	82
“ Quebec.....	65
“ New Brunswick.....	11
“ Nova Scotia.....	16
“ Prince Edward Island.....	4
“ Manitoba.....	17
“ Saskatchewan.....	21
“ Alberta.....	16
“ British Columbia.....	14
“ Yukon Territory.....	1

The question may be asked as to how it is that there are now 247 members in the House of Commons. We shall try to find the answer. The number of members depends on the population of the Province of Quebec. This province must, according to the constitution, always have 65 members. Then, when Quebec is given 65 members for a certain population, the other provinces are given the number that is proper for their population. If the population of another province is greater than that of Quebec, that province will have more members than Quebec. Consequently, the Province of Ontario has always had more members than Quebec. But if the population of any province is less than that of Quebec, it will have fewer members. The Province of Manitoba, for example, has always had fewer members than Quebec. So, to find the number of members any other province may have, is a question in arithmetic which can be easily solved.

Now, if we take the population of Quebec and that of Ontario as a little smaller than they really are, we shall be able to have

easier numbers with which to deal. We shall, therefore, suppose that the population of Quebec is 1,950,000. The province must have 65 members, and, dividing 1,950,000 by 65, we find that it will have one member for every 30,000 people. Further, if we take the population of Ontario as 2,460,000, all we have to do in order to find the number of members to which it is entitled, is to divide this number by 30,000. The result is 82.

In the same way the number of members for each of the other provinces can be found, if we know the population. 30,000 is called in this case the "unit of representation," for it is the number of people who have a right to one member of parliament to represent them. In order to avoid fractions, we have taken an easy example, but when fractions occur, those that are less than one-half are not counted, and those over one-half are reckoned as equal to 1.

The following are additional examples to be solved: 1. The population of Quebec in 1911 was 2,003,232, and that of Ontario 2,523,274. Find the unit of representation, and

the number of members for Ontario.

2. If the population of Quebec grows to 3,000,000, and that of British Columbia to 1,000,000, what will be the unit of representation, and the number of members which British Columbia will be entitled to have?

13. Census.

The census is taken, that is, the population of Canada is counted, every ten years in those years which end in 1, as 1891, 1901, 1911. After the taking of the census, parliament passes a law to give to each province its proper number of members, and this number cannot be changed till after the next census. Some of the provinces may be assigned fewer members as the result of a new census, because the population of Quebec is growing fast and so the unit of representation is increasing. Thus Prince Edward Island came into the Dominion with 6 members, and now has only 4. But the western provinces always gain members when a change is made, because their population is increasing very rapidly.

In 1917 the number of members was reckoned according to the census of 1911. On the basis of population, Prince Edward Island should have 3 members, not 4. But by a recent provision, a province is allowed to have as many members in the Commons as it has in the Senate. Yukon Territory is given 1 member.

14. Constituencies.

Having learned how the number of members for each province is determined, we have yet to consider how the provinces are divided into districts for the election of these members. Such divisions for electoral purposes are commonly called "constituencies." Each constituency ordinarily elects one member. But sometimes, as in the case of a city like Ottawa, which is from its size entitled to have two members, no division is made, and the one large constituency is asked to elect two members.

To divide a province into the proper number of constituencies with a fairly equal population, is not an easy matter. In whatever manner it may be done, there is nearly always a great deal of complaint that the government has acted

unfairly. This subject will be taken up more fully under Topic VI.

Notes.—A "bill," before it can pass the House, must be read three times. At the second reading debate upon it takes place.

The "Territories." Those parts of the Dominion that are not included in any of the provinces are called "territories." So long as a territory has a small population, it is governed directly by the Dominion. But as it becomes settled, it is given more and more power in local matters, until at last it is formed into a province. There are at present two territorial divisions in the Dominion: (1) Yukon Territory, electing its own governing body, the "territorial council," and (2) the Northwest Territories, having as yet no local government. Territories may be given representation in Parliament, but not necessarily on a strict basis of population.

QUESTIONS.

1. How is the speaker of the House of Commons chosen? Mention some of his duties.
2. What is the "speech from the throne"?
3. How is a question brought up for discussion in the House of Commons? How is a "division" taken?
4. What are the stages in the passing of a bill?
5. Tell why the House of Commons is supreme.
6. What are the qualifications necessary for a senator? For a member of the House of Commons?
7. In what way is the number of members in the House of Commons determined? What are "constituencies"?
8. Write a composition on the thought contained in the following lines, taking them as applicable to Canada:

And the different constituencies

LIBERTY.

On foreign mountains may the Sun refine
 The grape's soft juice, and mellow it to wine,
 With citron groves adorn a distant soil,
 And the fat olive swell with floods of oil:
 We envy not the warmer clime, that lies
 In ten degrees of more indulgent skies,
 Nor at the coarseness of our heaven repine,
 Though o'er our heads the frozen Pleiads shine:
 'Tis liberty that crowns Britannia's isle
 And makes her barren rocks and her bleak
 mountains smile.

—Addison.

TOPIC V.

THE PREMIER AND THE CABINET.

1. Introduction.

Mention has been made many times already of the "government" and the "leader of the government." We shall now try to show what is meant by these terms. The word "government" is here used in a special sense, and denotes the body of men who really rule the nation, for, as we already know, the king or his representative, the governor-general, has no actual power. This body is also called the

"cabinet." Further, it is known as the "executive" or the "administration," because it executes or carries out the laws and conducts the business of the nation, while the duty of parliament is chiefly to legislate or make the laws.

At the head of the cabinet stands the person whom we have thus far called the leader of the government, but who is more usually known as the "Prime Minister," or "Premier." The first form of the name, prime minister, is the one always employed in Great Britain, but not often used in Canada except in speaking of British affairs. The second form, premier, is the French word for "first," with the word "minister" omitted, and so means exactly the same as "prime minister," or "first minister." We almost invariably employ the form "Premier" in speaking of Canadian affairs.

But why is the word "minister" used? "Minister" means a "servant." Formerly the prime minister was the servant of the king, and carried out his commands. Now he is really the servant of the nation. for it is

ultimately through its will that he becomes the head of the executive, or cabinet. The other members of the cabinet are likewise called "ministers."✓

2. Appointment of a Premier.

When a new premier is to be appointed, the Governor-General sends for the person whom he thinks the majority of the House of Commons will support, and asks him if he will be his adviser and form a cabinet. If the person chosen feels that he can secure the support of the House of Commons, he sets about the selection of a certain number of men who may be willing to become his fellow ministers.

This is an easy matter, if it is pretty certain that the House of Commons will support the new premier. Otherwise it may be very difficult or impossible. In the latter event the new premier must go back to the Governor-General and say that he cannot form a cabinet. He then usually gives the name of a person who he thinks will be able to get proper support in the House. The Governor-General will at once send for this person, and ask him to be premier and form

his cabinet. When the latter has his cabinet chosen, he reports the names of the members to the Governor-General for approval.

3. Members of the Cabinet in Parliament.

The premier, when he is first chosen, need not be a member of parliament, though he almost always is, but he must become a member as soon as possible. He usually prefers to belong to the House of Commons; but though he would be permitted to be a member of the Senate instead of the Commons, such an arrangement would not work well, for in that case he would not be able to take a direct part in what was being done in the House whose support is so necessary to him. The other ministers are chosen, sometimes from among men already in parliament, but nearly as often from among those outside. All ministers must, however, like the premier, become members of either the House of Commons or the Senate. But usually only a few of the ministers are members of the Senate.

It is important to note that, even if a minister is a member of the House of Commons before his appointment, he must be

re-elected to the House as a minister and member of the cabinet. The reason is that cabinet ministers get a special salary from the nation for their work, and no member of parliament is allowed to accept any salary from the nation beyond the payment he receives as an ordinary member, unless the people of his constituency express their willingness by re-electing him. The new minister is usually re-elected, because it is considered a great honour and advantage to a constituency to have as its representative a member of the cabinet.

4. Supreme Power of the Premier.

It will be seen from what has been said before, that so long as the House of Commons gives its support, the premier is the most powerful man in the nation. 1. The other members of the cabinet are really appointed by him, and, 2. moreover, if he resigns, they too must resign. 3. The Governor-General must, so far as Canadian affairs go, absolutely follow his advice.

The only real check on the premier's power is the House of Commons. But the members of the House are not always free to do as they like

and vote against the premier at any time they may so wish. Nearly all the members of the House belong to one of two political parties. Of one of the parties the premier is the leader, and he is almost sure of being supported by the members of his party on all necessary occasions. How this comes about will be explained under Topic VI. Therefore, with the steady support of his party behind him, the premier can carry on the work of government very much in the way he thinks fit, and is thus the nation's real ruler.

5. Unity in the Cabinet.

But on all important matters the premier consults with his fellow ministers. Regular meetings of the cabinet are held, and after discussion the members come to an agreement on each question. If, however, a member feels that he cannot accept the decision of the premier and the rest of the cabinet on a matter which is regarded as important, he is under obligation to resign. For it was long ago decided that our government cannot proceed in a satisfactory way, unless the ministers are all of the same opinion on essential points. Everything that is

said in the discussions at a meeting of the cabinet, is kept absolutely secret.

6. Order in Council.

Studies
When the cabinet has reached an agreement about some matter of business, as, for example, the appointment of an official, the acceptance of a tender from a contractor for some public building, or any one of the many other matters that come up in the work of government, the decision is written down in due form and submitted to the Governor-General to be signed by him. It is then called an Order-in-Council and goes into effect.

NORM.—"Governor-General in Council." This term is used in the case of all official acts of the cabinet. It denotes that the decision of the premier and his ministers has been communicated to the governor-general, and has been accepted by him.

"Privy Council." This historic body formerly gave advice to the king, when he asked for its opinion on any matter of state. It is still retained, but at the present day has no duties whatever. Each cabinet minister must, however, become a member of it by taking a prescribed oath. Though he may resign from the cabinet, he always remains a member of this ancient and shadowy council. Our privy council is called "the King's Privy Council for Canada," and must be distinguished from the British Privy Council.

The word "crown" is often used instead of the name of the king, and practically means the nation, as, for example, in the term "minister of the crown."

QUESTIONS.

1. What position does the premier occupy in the government of the country?
2. How is the premier chosen?
3. Why is it advisable that the premier should be a member of the House of Commons?
4. How is it that the premier is supreme in the cabinet and the House of Commons?
5. What is an "order-in-council"?
6. What is the meaning of "Governor-General in Council" and "King's Privy Council for Canada"?
7. Write an account of a real or imaginary person who rose to the position of prime minister, as described in the following poem:

Dost thou look back on what hath been,
As some divinely gifted man,
Whose life in low estate began
And on a simple village green;

Who breaks his birth's invidious bar,
And grasps the skirts of happy chance,
And breasts the blows of circumstance,
And grapples with his evil star;

Who makes by force his merit known,
And lives to clutch the golden keys,
To mould a mighty state's decrees,
And shape the whisper of the throne:

And moving up from high to higher,
Becomes on Fortune's crowning slope
The pillar of a people's hope,
The centre of a world's desire ;
Yet feels as in a pensive dream,
When all his active powers are still,
A distant dearness in the hill,
A secret sweetness in the stream ;
The limit of his narrower fate,
While yet beside its vocal springs
He played at counsellors and kings,
With one that was his earliest mate ;
Who ploughs with pain his native lea
And reaps the labour of his hands,
Or in the furrow musing stands :
"Does my old friend remember me ?"

—Tennyson, *In Memoriam*, LXIV.

TOPIC VI.

POLITICAL PARTIES.

1. Public Questions.

There arise from time to time certain public questions about which men have strong opinions. For example, many are in favour of placing heavy duties on goods manufactured abroad, so as to prevent their importation into the country, thus

giving our manufacturers an opportunity of selling more of their goods in the Canadian market. Many other people advocate low duties or no duties at all on foreign goods, so that Canadians may be able to buy what they want as cheaply as possible without regard to the interests of the manufacturer and his workmen. Such is the tariff question which has played a great part in our political history. Other questions which have arisen are: that of separate schools in Manitoba and the new province; that of Senate reform; that of the national ownership of railways; and that of the prohibition of the sale of intoxicating liquors.

2. Origin of the Party System.

It is natural for all who take one side of a public question to form themselves into an association for the purpose of securing the adoption of laws in harmony with their particular views. The way to make sure that certain laws will be enacted, is to bring about the election to parliament of a majority of members in favour of them. Consequently, there is very good reason why persons who agree among

themselves on an important public question, should establish the kind of association which is called a political party.

But we must observe also that it is not often that a political party is successful, if the party is formed solely because of particular views on one question, no matter how important this may be. It is very difficult so to interest the great body of the citizens in a single question that they will unite on account of it alone aside from other public matters. But, in the course of long years of political discussion, the majority of the people have become separated into two great divisions. These divisions are known as the Conservative and Liberal parties.

The leaders of each, since they are anxious to secure a majority in the House and thus gain control of the government, try by every possible means to persuade voters of the merits of their own side. If they think that a certain public question will "catch" a large number of votes, they will be very ready to take it up, even though personally they might prefer to leave the matter alone. In this way, all important

questions are as a rule brought under the consideration of the people, and, in consequence, there is on ordinary occasions no need for forming a special political party. It is only when neither of the old parties will assist in the discussion of a public matter, that a new party may come into existence. There is, however, one great disadvantage in our having these permanent political divisions. Many persons become so much interested in the mere success of their own party, that they seem to care very little whether the public measures which it is advocating, are good or bad.

3. Political Platforms.

Some time before the elections a party usually draws up what is called its "platform," that is, a statement of what its views are in regard to the "issues," or important questions before the people. This statement represents the "policy" of the party. Great care is taken to show that this policy is in agreement with the "principles," or general ideas of government which the party is supposed always to follow and to hold sacred. We hear a great deal about these principles

Liberal Hon. Mackenzie King
prime minister of Canada.

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during the "campaign," or period of public discussion that comes just before the elections.

A party usually has a "campaign cry," which is supposed to give the main issue in the most attractive way. These campaign cries sound very strange after all the excitement is over. Some of those which have been used are, "The old flag, the old policy and the old leader," "It is time for a change," "Five years more of the full dinner pail."

4. Government and Opposition.

The political party which has the majority in the House of Commons and of which the premier is the leader, is called the government party, and the other which opposes the government, is known as the "opposition." The head of the latter party has no special name, and is called simply the "leader of the Opposition."

5. Nominating Conventions.

One of the first duties of a political party before an election is to endeavour to have suitable men "nominated" in every constituency, that is, to have them put forward publicly for election to the House. These men, when

opposed to the Conservative party R. R.
Bennet.

selected, are called "candidates." The usual way in which a party chooses its candidate, is to ask its friends in each part of a constituency to meet and elect delegates, or representatives, to attend a general meeting, or "convention," to be held in some central place.

At the convention a number of names are proposed, and a vote is taken. After voting on all the names, the convention can generally narrow its choice down to two or three that obtain a high number of votes. The person who finally secures the highest vote, is chosen as the candidate of the party. Then the one who comes next to him in the number of votes received, generally moves that the choice of the convention "be made unanimous," and promises that he himself, just as the rest of the convention, will accept the party candidate and will work hard to secure his election to parliament.

Even though it may be well understood that the member at the time representing the constituency in parliament will again be a candidate at the elections, a convention of his party is usually called, and he is nominated or not, as the

convention thinks fit. Sometimes conventions, when summoned, decide not to put a candidate "in the field," if they see that their party would have little chance of winning.

c. The Campaign.

As soon as a candidate is chosen, he must set about preparing his "campaign." A number of the party workers help him, but he must do a great deal himself. He must try to meet as many persons as possible in the various parts of the constituency. For this purpose he goes about speaking at public meetings which are arranged for him, and is introduced by the local party men to individual voters.

He or his friends have to ask a great many directly for their votes or, as it is said, "canvass" them. It is an unfortunate thing that so many will not vote for a candidate, unless they are personally solicited. They seem to forget that voting is one of the highest duties which they have to perform as citizens, and that they should vote for the candidate they believe to be the best, whether they have ever been canvassed or not.

Sometimes also money is paid for votes. This "bribing" of electors is one of the greatest crimes that can be committed against the nation, and the person who receives such money is quite as guilty as the person who pays it. If bribery were ever to become general, it would mean the end of liberty and good government, and thus what our ancestors toiled during a thousand years to gain would be thrown away. There may be bribery, too, in other ways than by money. For instance, some voters may be promised positions in the public service, grants from parliament, or special favours of various kinds. Such methods are all equally bad from a moral point of view and all equally injurious to the nation.

7. Doubtful and Safe Constituencies.

While the candidate is working in his own constituency, the leader and other prominent men in the party make a tour through the country. They address meetings in what are considered suitable places, especially in those constituencies which the party is afraid of losing, though it has won them at the preceding election, or which it does not now hold but

has hopes of winning. In fact, on these "doubtful" constituencies the fate of the party ordinarily depends.

On the other hand, there are some divisions that are almost sure to elect a Conservative as their member, while there are others that are quite as certain to elect a Liberal. Now it is just because of such circumstances that a government may have a great temptation to face. For, when a province is being divided into constituencies, a government, if it likes, can so make the division, that as many as possible of the new constituencies may be "safe" ones for its own party, and as many as possible "doubtful" for the opposition. For example, if a certain constituency is a doubtful one for the government, and there happens to be close by a district that gives a good majority in its favour, all the government has to do in order to make the constituency probably a safe one is to add this district. Or the same result may be gained by taking away a part of the constituency that gives a large opposition majority. This unfair way of dividing a province is called a "gerrymander," from the name of an American politician.

Study

Notes.—“Seat” is a term often used for constituency. “Elector” is another word for “voter.” “The country” is a term frequently employed in politics to mean the electorate, or the whole body of voters of the nation.

QUESTIONS.

1. Mention some important public questions that have arisen from time to time in Canada.
2. How do political parties originate?
3. Explain the terms, “platform,” “issue,” “policy,” “campaign.”
4. What is the “opposition?”
5. What is a “nominating convention?”
6. Give an account of a political meeting which you have attended.
7. Who were the candidates in your constituency at the last Dominion election, and how did they conduct their campaigns?
8. Explain “cavass,” “bribery,” “gerrymander.”
9. Learn by heart the following:

FREEDOM.

England

Her open eyes desire the truth.
The wisdom of a thousand years
Is in them. May perpetual youth
Keep dry their light from tears;

That her fair form may stand and shine,
Make bright our days and light our dreams,
Turning to scorn with lips divine
The falsehood of extremes!

—Tennyson.

TOPIC VII.

HOW THE ELECTIONS ARE HELD. 67 (1)

1. Sessions of Parliament. 1007

According to our constitution, the British North America Act, parliament must meet at least once a year. This meeting together for the purpose of making laws and transacting other public business, is called a "session" of parliament. Besides the one ordinary session in the year, a special session is sometimes held when there is need for it. The session may be long or short according to circumstances. The ordinary length is about four or five months.

Members of the Senate and the House of Commons are each paid a salary, called an "indemnity," of \$4,000 for attendance during a session. If, however, a member is absent from the House a certain number of days, he loses a part of the indemnity. Moreover, if a session does not last longer than thirty days, he receives only a certain sum per day. The salary of the Governor-General is \$50,000 per year.

2. Prorogation.

At the close of the session parliament is "prorogued." This term means that parliament is dismissed for the time being, but is to be called to meet again at a certain date, when there will be a new session. At prorogation all bills that have not yet passed the Houses are dropped, and at the next session they must be presented again, as if they had never been before parliament.

On the occasion of prorogation the Governor-General comes in state to the parliament buildings, as at the opening, and gives the royal assent to the bills that have been passed during the session. He also reads a short speech, reviewing the business of the session, and thanking the members for the work they have done.

3. Dissolution.

The longest period a parliament is allowed to last is five years; but very few ever continue so long. The ordinary duration is about four years. The government can have a parliament "dissolved," or ended, at any time, if the Governor-General consents, and, of course, he

will hardly ever refuse except for the gravest reasons.

Important
1. If a parliament is permitted to run its full course, there is difficulty in holding a satisfactory session near the end. 2. The opposition can prevent legislation by simply talking away the time in committee of the whole, where any member may speak as often as he likes. 3. This method of delaying business is known as "obstruction." When "obstructing," members only pretend to discuss the bill before them, their chief aim being to keep on talking as long as they can. 4. Therefore, it is plain that, since parliament must come to an end by a certain day, the last session can be made nearly useless and the government be placed in an unpleasant position before the country.

Another reason why a parliament hardly ever lasts its full period, is that the government naturally likes to choose a time for "going to the country," when it feels that the chances of winning are most in its favour. If it should allow a parliament to last into the fifth year, it would have less choice of a suitable

moment for dissolution. This must be regarded as a rather unfair advantage which the government can take of the opposition. Besides these reasons, there is no doubt always a strong desire in the government party "to have it over" as soon as possible, when in any case election day must come before long.

4. Premature Dissolution.

There are, however, occasions when the length of a parliament may be much shortened. One occurs when some very important matter comes up for consideration, and the members of the government wish to know whether or not the people approve of their policy with respect to it. The Governor-General is asked to dissolve parliament, and the "campaign" is fought chiefly on that one great question. If the government obtains a majority, it knows that the people wish it to carry out its policy. If it is defeated, the opposition comes into power as a new government.

Again, an occasion for dissolving parliament may arise when the government is defeated in the House of Commons on some

important question, such as a government measure. The government may ask for a dissolution in order to appeal to the country; or it may resign. If it resigns, the Governor-General requests the leader of the Opposition to form a new government. Should the new premier feel that he can get the support of the House, he may go on with the work of the session. But, if he is aware that he will not secure sufficient support, he asks that parliament be dissolved, and appeals to the people in the hope of obtaining a favourable majority in the new parliament.

5. Official Nomination of Candidates.

When for any reason it is decided to hold the parliamentary elections, writs, or orders, are sent out in the name of the king to special officers appointed in all the constituencies, and known as "returning officers." The writs state when the nomination of candidates is to take place. If only one candidate presents himself in a constituency, he is declared elected. Such an election is known as election by "acclamation." But if more than one candidate is

nominated, there must be a vote taken at a later time throughout the constituency at various places selected for the purpose.

At this regular or official nomination those who have been already chosen by the parties as candidates, are duly nominated by their supporters. Often no other candidates come forward, and the voters are forced to choose between these two. Sometimes, however, a third party, as the Labour party or the Socialist party, may put forth a candidate. Or a person may decide to be a candidate without the support of any party. Such a candidate is usually called an Independent Conservative or an Independent Liberal, as the case may be.

6. Nomination Papers.

See above. The official nomination of candidates takes place in this way. At the time set by law, twelve o'clock noon, on the day appointed, the returning officer goes to a public hall, and there waits for nominations till two o'clock. A nomination must be in written form, and be signed by twenty-five electors. The person nominated must give his written consent, unless

he is absent from the province at the time. The sum of two hundred dollars must also be handed in to be kept as a deposit and returned, unless the candidate fails to obtain at least one-half of the number of votes polled in favour of the person elected.

7. How the Voting is Done

all known After nomination day comes election day. Suitable places are chosen throughout the constituency as voting or "polling" places, and each is put under the charge of a deputy returning officer.

The vote is by ballot and is secret. A ballot is a sheet of paper having a detachable slip or counterfoil at the side, and provided with a stub by which it may be bound into a book containing twenty-five, fifty, or one hundred ballots, as is most convenient. On the front of the ballot appears the name of each candidate, with his residence and occupation. The names are in alphabetical order, numbered, and separated from one another by broad black lines. On the back, the stub and counterfoil have the same printed number, while the body of the ballot

has the returning officer's stamp, the place and date of the elections, and the name of the person who printed the ballots.

If you go to a polling place to record your vote, you notice, as you enter, besides the deputy returning officer and his assistant, known as the "poll clerk," a certain number of men, commonly called "scrutineers," who have been chosen by the political parties to watch over the interests of their candidates, and to see that persons who have no right to vote are not given a ballot. There is in the room a list of all those who have votes, and, if your name is on it, and the officials present are satisfied that you are the person you claim to be and not somebody else trying to vote under your name, you receive from the deputy returning officer a ballot, on the back of which he has put his initials. On the counter-foil also is written a number corresponding to the number placed opposite your name in the "poll book," in which a record is kept of all those who vote.

You are told to retire to some small room opening from the larger one, or to some space

screened off from it, and there you find a pencil with which you are to mark your ballot. Absolutely all you must do, is to make a cross X opposite the name of the man for whom you wish to vote. If you put any other mark on your ballot, you "spoil" it, so that it will not be counted. Then you should fold your ballot so as to show the initials of the deputy returning officer on the outside.

After that you go with it to the deputy returning officer. He looks at the number on the counterfoil and his initials, to make sure that it is the same ballot as the one which he gave you. Then he tears off and destroys the counterfoil, and puts your ballot in the ballot box that has been provided to contain all the ballots cast at this polling place. Meanwhile, the poll clerk records in the poll book the fact that you have voted.

In case the officials are not sure that you have a right to vote, they can ask that you be sworn before receiving a ballot. If you cannot swear that you are entitled to vote, you will not be given a ballot and will be asked to withdraw.

The voting lasts from nine o'clock in the morning till five o'clock in the afternoon. When the poll is closed, the votes are counted as rapidly as possible, and the results are carried by eager messengers to the nearest telegraph or telephone office, so that it is known everywhere in a very short time who has been elected member for the constituency. There may, of course, be mistakes made in this first summing up, and the result is not known exactly, until the returning officer himself a few days later counts again all the votes in the constituency, and makes his official statement.

If the number of votes given for the candidates is very nearly even, there is usually held what is called a "recount" before a judge. The chief difficulty that usually presents itself, is whether certain ballots are to be counted or not. Some electors may have voted for more than the proper number of candidates, may have placed some marks beside the cross on their ballot, or may have made some other mistake. The judge decides on all these points, and his decision settles the question of the election,

unless there has been bribery or other wrong doing. In the latter event, the case comes up for trial in a court of law.

The elections are held throughout the Dominion on the same day, except in some large constituencies where the population is widely scattered and voters may have to go a long way to vote. Such constituencies are to be found in Northern Quebec and in British Columbia. There are also special arrangements regarding elections in the Yukon Territory.

8. By-Elections.

Elections for the choosing of a new parliament are called general elections. But often vacancies occur in the House of Commons at other times, when a member resigns or dies, or when a seat is declared vacant by a court of law for bribery or some other reason. In the case of a vacancy for whatever cause, the speaker of the House gives his "warrant," or permission, for holding a special election in the constituency concerned. Such an election is ordinarily called a "by-election." It is conducted in exactly the same

way as are the general elections, except in so far as it has to do with one constituency only and not with the entire country. If there are several vacancies at one time, the necessary by-elections are held as far as possible on the same day.

NOTE.—The “Closure.” This is a means adopted in the British parliament to prevent “obstruction.” A time-table is drawn up beforehand, showing how long discussion will be allowed in committee of the whole on each clause or division of a bill. When the time is up, all debate must cease, and the clause is straightway voted on, and adopted or rejected. Then at once discussion on the next clause begins, and continues for the period allotted for the purpose. Thus it becomes manifestly impossible for members to “talk out” a bill.

The “Ballot.” The abbreviations on the back are R.O. (Returning Officer), D.R.O. (Deputy Returning Officer), P.B. (Poll Book).

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the meaning of “prorogue” and “dissolve” as applied to parliament?
2. What causes may bring about the dissolution of parliament?
3. Tell how candidates are officially nominated for election.
4. Describe how an elector casts his vote.
5. What are the duties of a returning officer, a deputy returning officer, and a poll clerk?
6. Where was the polling place in your neighbourhood at the last Dominion election? In favour of what

political party did your municipality or polling division give a majority ?

7. What political party is at present in power in the Dominion, and what is its majority in the House of Commons ?

8. The following passage contains advice for leaders of political parties who desire the welfare of their country :

Nor toil for title, place or touch
Of pension, neither count on praise :
It grows to guerdon after-days :
Nor deal in watchwords overmuch :

Not clinging to some ancient saw ;
Not mastered by some modern term ;
Not swift nor slow to change, but firm :
And in its season bring the law.

—Tennyson

Read it over and try to understand it.

FORM OF BALLOT PAPER.

FRONT.

STUB	COUNTERFOIL	1	WM. R. BROWN of the City of Ottawa, Barrister.	
		2	FRANK HAMON of the City of Ottawa, Artist.	
		3	JOSEPH O'NEIL of the City of Ottawa, Gentleman.	X
		4	JOHN R. SMITH of the City of Ottawa, Merchant.	
STUB				

FORM OF BALLOT PAPER.

(Reduced to about 2/3 original size.)

BACK.

No. 325

(Line of Perforations here.)

No. 325

P. E. No.

(Line of Perforations here.)

D. E. O.

INITIALS.



ELECTORAL DISTRICT OF

CARLETON,

November 24, 1900.

JAMES BROWN, Printer,
Ottawa.

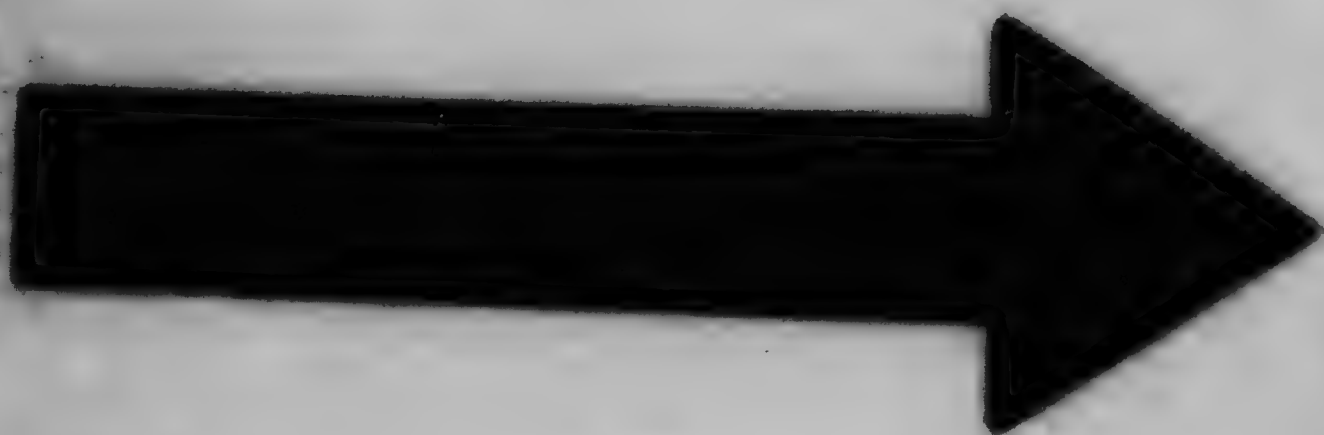
TOPIC VIII.

THE DEPARTMENTS OF GOVERNMENT.

1. Ministers and their Deputies

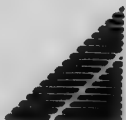
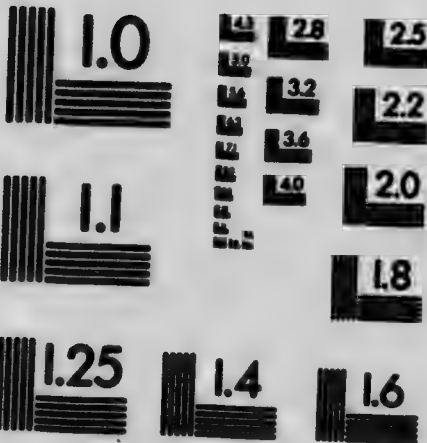
Thus far we have been studying chiefly how the laws are made, and what share the executive, or cabinet, has in legislation. We shall now learn how the cabinet carries on the general business of the nation. | All the immense amount of work that has to be done, is divided among a certain number of departments. At the head of each department is a cabinet minister. He is responsible for the kind of work that is done in his department, and is expected to answer questions about it when they are asked in parliament.

Under him is a deputy minister, who assists him, and has more direct charge of the details of the department and of the clerks and others employed. Though the cabinet minister must change, if the government is defeated and compelled to resign, the deputy minister is a permanent official. If it were otherwise, the public business might be very badly done, when new men took hold of a department without knowledge of its special work. Cabinet ministers may come and



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go, but there is still a person left in charge who is familiar with the business of his department.

2. List of Cabinet Ministers

The following is a list of cabinet ministers and the department over which each presides. It often happens, however, that by reason of circumstances a minister may have charge of more than one department. For instance, at present (1926) the Minister of Labour is also Minister of Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment and the Minister in charge of the Department of Health :

1. The Prime Minister, or Premier, who is also Secretary of State for External Affairs, having charge of correspondence with the rest of the Empire and with foreign nations. He is also President of the Council and presides at meetings of the cabinet.

2. The Minister of Trade and Commerce, the duties of whose department will be readily understood from the name. He has also charge of the census. He is, moreover, the minister who has to do with the granting of patents, the copyrighting of books, and the registering of trade marks.

3. The Minister of Justice, who has charge of legal matters. He sees that the laws are enforced, decides whether a man who has committed a crime shall be pardoned or not, and has the oversight of the penitentiaries of the Dominion.

4. The Minister of Marine and Fisheries, who has to deal with matters connected with navigation and fishing. For example, he looks after the harbours, the lighthouses, the inspection of ships. He is also head of the Department of the Naval Service having control of matters that concern the navy and the hydrographic service.

5. The Minister of Militia and Defence, whose duties are with regard to our armies, fortresses, schools of instruction and military college.

6. The Postmaster General, the minister in charge of all the post offices and the mails.

7. The Minister of Labour, whose duties concern the welfare of the working men. Thus he aids in the settlement of "strikes" in accordance with an act of parliament which provides for arbitration under certain conditions. The department of labour publishes a paper called the "Labour Gazette."

8. The Minister of Agriculture, who has charge not only of agricultural affairs, but of many things that have little to do with farming. He deals with matters which concern the health of the people, and the quarantining of ships or their passengers, if any dangerous disease is found on board.

9. The Minister of Public Works who attends to the erection and repairing of all public buildings and other works (except railways and canals).

10. The Minister of Finance, who is the most important minister with the exception of the Premier.
He lays before parliament and the nation the policy of the government in regard to taxation.
As the Dominion collects its taxes indirectly by means of customs and excise duties, and not directly, as our cities and towns must do, this policy comes to mean a very great deal in the buying and selling of manufactured goods. The matter will be more fully explained under Topic IX.

11. The Minister of Railways and Canals, who deals with affairs connected with the railways and canals of the country. The nation owns all the canals, and also the system of railways known as The Canadian National Railways. There is a "Board of Railway Commissioners of Canada."

with powers relating to the location, construction and operation of railways, also in regard to rate regulation. The Board also has certain powers in regard to telegraph and telephone charges, and to express rates. The Board consists of six members, but two members constitute a quorum.

12 The Minister of the Interior, who has to do with the government of the Northwest Territories, the Indians, and many matters that concern the western provinces.

13 The Minister of Customs and Inland Revenue, who has charge of the collection of the customs and excise duties, and the inspection of weights and measures.

14 The Secretary of State, who is the minister that acts as the official correspondent in matters in which the whole government is concerned. For instance, he carries on the correspondence between the Dominion and the provinces. Besides such duties, he issues passports to Canadians who intend going abroad, puts the great seal of the Dominion on documents which require it, looks after the government printing, and buys and distributes the stationery needed in all the

departments. He is also Minister of Mines, and as such deals with the examination of mineral deposits and the exploration of parts of the country little known.

15. The Minister of Immigration and Colonization, who deals especially with the bringing of settlers to Canada to occupy the new lands.

16. The Minister of Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment, whose department aims to help returned soldiers to take their place again in the work of ordinary life.

In addition to the cabinet ministers, there is a member of the government who is not a member of the cabinet. He is the Solicitor-General, whose duty it is to give legal advice to the government, and to act as counsel when the Dominion has a case in court.

3. Civil Service

The great army of clerks and other officials, many of them men of highly trained skill, who are required in the various departments of the government, is called by the general name of the "Civil Service." The name was originally given to distinguish this class from the persons who are engaged in the military or the naval service

of the country. Those who wish to enter the civil service must pass an examination. The Governor-General in council makes the appointments to the service.

Formerly appointments and promotions were often the direct result of the "influence" of political friends. But it was at last decided to change all this, and to have persons selected because of their ability and fitness. For this purpose the civil service has been placed under the control of a "Civil Service Commission," to act independently of politics. The commission now consists of three members.

QUESTIONS.

1. What are the duties of a deputy minister?
2. How many cabinet ministers are there?
3. Who is the Premier? Who is the Minister of Finance?
4. What is the Board of Railway Commissioners?
5. What are the duties of the Minister of Justice and the Secretary of State?
6. Describe the work of the Department of Labour?
7. What is the "civil service"?
8. Commit to memory:

Should banded unions persecute
 Opinion and induce a time
 When single thought is civil crime,
 And individual freedom mute;

Though Power should make from land to land
 The name of Britain trebly great—
 Tho' every channel of the state
 Should fill and choke with golden sand—

Yet waft me from the harbour-mouth,
 Wild wind! I seek a warmer sky,
 And I will see before I die
 The palms and temples of the South. *England.*
 —TENNYSON.

TOPIC IX.

TAXATION.

1. The National Debt.

^ In order that government may go on, a great deal of money must, of course, be spent. Our nation, like nearly all others, is in debt to a large amount. Debt for a nation is not quite so troublesome a thing as debt for an ordinary person. Nations are expected to live forever or, at least, for a very long time. Consequently, when great public works are to be constructed,

it does not seem necessary or proper that, while these are to benefit future generations, the people of the present time should pay in full for them. Therefore, money is borrowed, and interest is paid on it. Moreover, the nation can borrow money at a low rate of interest, and thus the burden of the debt is, after all, not so great.

Still it is unwise even for a nation to assume a very heavy debt. For, in that case, those who lend money become afraid of not receiving the interest promptly or even of losing some of the principal, since a nation, like an individual, sometimes cannot or will not pay its debts. As a result, lenders may charge a high rate of interest or may not lend at all, even when the nation is in great need. Canada has never gone too deeply into debt, and so can borrow money at a low rate of interest, or, as people say, "the credit of the country is good." We have gone into debt chiefly to provide for the construction of public buildings, railways and canals, and to assume the indebtedness of the provinces at the time when they entered Confederation.

2. Annual Expenditures

Each year the interest on the public debt has to be paid. Next come the expenses of parliament and the salary of the Governor-General. The Dominion must also pay the salaries of the lieutenant-governors of the provinces. All the expenses of the departments and the civil service have to be met. The salaries of the judges, the cost of building and managing public works of all kinds, of maintaining the mounted police in the Northwest Territories and of looking after the Indians, and countless other expenses, must all be paid.

3. Sources of Revenue.

Important.
Now, the question is how is all this money to be obtained? The answer is that it is paid in the form of taxes by the people. But in ordinary times the Dominion does not levy taxes on the people directly as a municipality does. It secures its revenue indirectly by means of customs and excise duties.

4. Customs Duties.

Revenue.
When anything is brought into the country, such as manufactured articles, like cotton or woollen goods, or natural products, like grain or

Important sugar, it may have a tax placed upon it of so much per cent. according to value, or so many cents per bushel or pound according to the quantity. Such taxes bear the name of customs duties. As goods usually are imported in large quantities by merchants, the duties are paid by them in the first place. But when they are bought by purchasers in the shops and elsewhere, they must be sold at a higher price in order to make up the amount of the duties that have been charged. Consequently, every person in the country pays more or less taxes to the Dominion government, although he may never realize that he is doing so.

Herein lies the objection to such a method of taxation, since one cannot readily discover how much he is actually paying. In fact, it would often seem as if a large part of the nation does not really know that government costs anything, or imagines that the money comes in some miraculous way and not out of the people's own pockets. As a result, public expenditures are often not as closely watched as desirable, and administrations are, in consequence, tempted to be wasteful. The nation also falls into the habit of expecting

parliament to authorize unprofitable undertakings, such, for example, as the construction of public works in places where they are not needed.

5. Protective Tariff.

The rate of duties placed upon imported goods, or the "tariff," as it is commonly called, may lend itself to another purpose besides the raising of revenue for the expenses of government. This we shall now explain. If a country has few manufactures, it must ordinarily have few people living in the cities, because there will be little work for them to do. Therefore, the farmers will find only a small population to buy their grain and other products, or, as it is said, the "home market" will be small. Hence it will be necessary to send a large amount of produce abroad to other countries in order to be able to dispose of it.

where is the home market?
Now it is always felt that it would be well to have a large market at home. For, in that case, the manufacturer could sell his goods to the farmer, and the farmer sell his produce to the manufacturer and his workmen, and everybody find it a profitable arrangement.

But how can manufactures be built up, when costly buildings must first be erected and workmen trained, while foreign manufacturers who have been years in business are prepared to sell their goods at such low prices as to defy competition?

The easiest way out of the difficulty seems to be to levy high customs duties on foreign goods. As a result, these cannot any longer be sold cheaply in the country. Hence the home manufacturers will be able to sell their product at a remunerative price, and thus find themselves in a position to build and equip suitable factories and procure skilled workmen. Afterwards when they have had such "protection" against foreign goods, until their business has become prosperous, they will be able to meet all competition and need not complain, if the high duties are removed. This would seem to be an excellent arrangement, for, although the farmers and other purchasers will for a time have to pay more for what they buy, they will be assisting in the creation of a large home market for themselves.

The main difficulty is, that it is not easy for any one to say just how long the high duties

should be maintained. The manufacturers will naturally desire "protection," as long as it can be given, for, if it is removed, they will be compelled to lower the price of their goods. Yet those opposed to protection, called "free traders," would soon persuade the people to abolish the high duties, if foreign nations did not also have their own protective tariffs against us in order to keep out our goods. Thus there exists what is really a sort of war between nations, in which each tries to get the better of the other.

As a consequence, Canada seems to be forced in self-defence to keep up a protective tariff. In fact, there is only one great "free trade" country in the world, namely, Great Britain. The United States has a very high tariff. On the other hand, the Canadian tariff is rather a moderate one. Moreover, we have adopted, in favour of Great Britain and a number of the colonies, what is known as the "British preferential tariff," which permits their manufactures to enter our country at a lower rate than we grant to those of outside nations.

6. Excise Duties.

Besides the customs duties levied on goods brought into the country, there are "excise duties," which are collected on liquors and tobacco manufactured in Canada. This tax is a heavy one and yields a large revenue to the government.

7. Consolidated Fund.

All sums of money that are contributed for the purposes of government, whether they come from taxes or from some other source, are placed together to form what is known as the "consolidated fund." Then again, all the expenses of government are paid out of the same general fund. In this way it is very easy to discover to what the revenue and the expenditure have amounted during each year. An official, called the "auditor general," has the duty of investigating all payments, so as to make sure that no money has been expended for any purpose beyond what was authorized by parliament.

8. The Budget.

One of the great events of the annual session of parliament is the speech of the Minister of Finance in which he presents the "budget."

This means the statement of the probable expenses of government for the following year and of the amount and kind of taxation that will be necessary to meet these expenses. Therefore, it is in this speech that is explained what will be the rate of duties on imports, and whether the tariff will be "protective" in the case of certain kinds of goods, or whether it will be one "for revenue only." The budget speech is, or should be, a matter of great interest to farmers, manufacturers, merchants, and, in fact, to all classes of people, because customs duties affect everybody in the country in some way or other.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why should a nation not go deeply into debt?
 2. How does the Dominion obtain its revenue? *customs not included*
 3. Mention some of the annual items of expenditure.
 4. What are "customs duties"?
 5. What is a "protective tariff"?
 6. What is the "budget"?
-

TOPIC X.

MONEY AND THE BANKS.

1. Money and Barter.

We all know something about "money." When we buy anything, we pay money. When we sell anything, we receive money. Things that are sold and work that is done, are said to cost a certain sum in money. If there were no such thing as money, we should be forced to use what is called "barter." For example, if we wanted to buy a pair of boots, we should have to work a certain number of days for the man who sold them, or give him something that we had, such as wheat, flour or meat. Long ago before there was money, this is what was actually done. But nowadays all kinds of work to be performed and all articles to be sold, are said to cost a certain amount in dollars and cents. One can easily see that this is a much more convenient way of doing business than if we had to employ barter.

2. Currency.

The form of our money (or our "currency") is very familiar to us. It consists of copper, silver, gold and paper. The copper coin is the one cent

piece. The silver coins are the pieces worth 5, 10, 25, and 50 cents. The gold coins are of the value of \$5 and \$10. The paper money consists of "notes" (usually called "bills"), representing the value of \$1, \$2, \$5, \$50, \$100, \$500 and \$1,000. These coins and notes are issued by the Dominion, and would be worth little, or, in the case of the paper money, nothing at all, if the government was not always willing, when asked, to pay the given value in gold.

But just because it is well known that the government will pay in gold, there is considered to be little need of asking for payment. The promise to pay is regarded as of the same value as the gold itself. But if at any time many persons should come to believe that the government either would not, or could not, pay in gold, our currency would at once lose much of its value. Therefore, the government takes care to issue currency only to such an amount that doubt can never arise as to its being able to "redeem" all in case of necessity.

3. Coinage.

An establishment where gold, silver and copper coins are made is called a "mint." Our

mint is situated in Ottawa. It is a branch of the royal mint in Great Britain.

The notes or bills are printed on specially prepared paper, and are signed by officers of the Dominion. Great care must be taken that no person shall be allowed to imitate, or "counterfeit," these notes, since, in that case, either the government or the persons who happened to accept the "counterfeits," would lose the amount of money supposed to be represented by them.

4. The Chartered Banks.

The regular banks of the country, called "chartered banks," perform many important services. Their business is carried on under the terms of a "banking act" which renders them, as far as can be done by legislation, a safe place in which to deposit money. Most of the provisions of the act are too difficult to explain here. But in a general way it may be said that the shareholders (that is, those who own and control the bank) are liable to lose, in case the bank becomes insolvent, not only the money that they have invested, but as much again, should it all be required to pay off the indebtedness. Thus the "double liability" of

the shareholders makes it almost impossible for the depositors to lose much in the event of the failure of a chartered bank.

5. Services Performed by the Banks.

The chief services performed by the banks may be described as follows:—

1. They issue currency called "bank-notes" or "bank-bills." None of these notes are below \$5 in value. In most banks they are of such denominations as \$5, \$10, \$20, \$50, \$100. If a bank fails, its notes do not lose value, for the banking act prescribes a way by which they are to be redeemed in full without the slightest loss or inconvenience to the public

2. They form a safe place for the deposit of money. The double liability of the shareholders makes it possible to secure funds enough in even the most disastrous failures to pay back nearly in full the amount of the money deposited.

3. They furnish money at a reasonable rate of interest to merchants and others for the carrying on of those kinds of business in which large amounts must be paid out for purchases,

before much can be returned through the sale of the goods. An important example is to be found in the case of the money required to pay farmers for their wheat. Most of the wheat must be shipped to Great Britain; hence there must elapse considerable time before it is actually paid for by the purchasers across the ocean. With the aid of the banks, it becomes possible to make cash payments to the farmers from whom the grain is bought, and to the railway companies by whom it is transported.

4. All the large banks have many branches throughout the country. Thus there is in nearly every town and village an office of a strong and trustworthy institution, where money may be deposited or borrowed according to the needs of local business.

QUESTIONS.

1. Examine a one-dollar bill, noting the place, the date, the number, the "promise to pay," and the signatures. What scenes and persons are represented on the front and back of the bill?
2. Examine a copper or silver coin, noting the design on its two sides. Find what the Latin inscription means.
3. What is the name of the nearest branch of a chartered bank? Who are the chief officials? What is the rate of interest paid on deposits?

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PART II.—PROVINCIAL AFFAIRS.

TOPIC XI.

THE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT.

1. Introduction.

There are nine provinces in the Dominion of Canada, and, although there is much similarity in their forms of government, there are likewise important differences. We shall find it well to study particularly the government of the province of Quebec, and shall refer to that of the others only when some interesting point is to be observed.

Quebec may be called the senior province of the Dominion. It represents the original territory of the old French colony of Canada. From it Upper Canada was separated in 1791, only to be re-united fifty years later. When the Dominion was formed in 1867 by the union of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick to Canada, the latter was again divided into the two provinces of Quebec and Ontario.

Since the annexation of the territory of Ungava in 1912, Quebec ranks first in size among the provinces of the Dominion. Its area is 703,653 square miles, being about one-fifth of that of all Canada. Its population, according to the census of 1911, is placed at 2,002,712. In this respect Quebec comes second, being surpassed by Ontario. The rate of increase in its population has been in recent years greater than that of any other eastern province, but falls behind that of the newer provinces of the west.

2. The Lieutenant-Governor and the Premier.

The provincial government is conducted according to the same general principles that we have already studied in the case of the Dominion. The lieutenant-governor, who is appointed by the Dominion government, holds a position similar to that which the governor-general holds in the Dominion. The leader of the government is called the "premier," and is at the head of the provincial cabinet, which is known as the "executive council." He is, like the Dominion premier, the real ruler. ✓

Judge Bassett is the lieutenant-governor of Quebec.

3. The Executive Council.

The members of the executive of the province are as follows :

1. The Attorney-General.
2. The Provincial Secretary.
3. The Provincial Treasurer. *McMaster.*
4. The Minister of Lands and Forests. *Hon. Marcie.*
5. The Minister of Colonization, Mines, and Fisheries. *Hon. J. A. Plessault.*
6. The Minister of Agriculture. *Hon. J. E. Gauthier.*
7. The Minister of Public Works and Labour. *Hon. J. P. Gauthier.*
8. The Minister of Roads. *Hon. J. Plessault.*

Sometimes additional members are appointed to the executive council who do not take charge of any particular office, but who assist in a general way with their advice.

The business under the control of the various ministers is as follows :

The Attorney-General must see that justice is administered and the laws enforced. He conducts the prosecution or the defence of all cases for or against the Crown.

The Provincial Secretary conducts the correspondence of the government and keeps the public records. He has charge of affairs relating to municipalities and of public institutions under provincial control such as hospitals, asylums for the insane, the blind, the deaf and dumb. To him is responsible the superintendent of education, the head of the public school system.

The Provincial Treasurer has charge of the finances. Under the direction of the legislature, he collects the provincial revenue from the various sources and distributes it for expenditure among the different public departments. His annual report to the assembly of revenue and expenditure together with his estimates and proposals for the coming year is called the *budget*.

The Minister of Lands and Forests looks after the protection and the sale of the public or "crown" lands belonging to the province and of the timber thereon.

The Minister of Colonization, Mines, and Fisheries deals with the settlement of immigrants on the vacant lands, the sale of mining rights

and the protection and regulation of fishing in the inland waters of the province. He also enforces the game laws.

The Minister of Agriculture has to do with all matters relating to farming undertaken by the province, such as agricultural schools and institutes, model farms, etc.

The Minister of Public Works and Labour has the management of all public works, buildings, bridges, etc., owned by the province. He also has a certain supervision over those railways to the construction of which the province has contributed. In his department of Labour there are collected statistics and other information on the conditions of labour and other industrial questions.

The Minister of Roads. Roads are under the immediate control of the rural municipalities, but in many parts their condition has been far from satisfactory. Since 1911 the province has done much to improve it, and in 1914 the Department of Roads was placed in charge of a separate minister. Under his direction large sums are spent in the construction and improve-

ment of important highways. For the same purpose loans are made by the provincial government to municipalities on which they pay only 2 per cent. interest for 41 years, when their indebtedness is cancelled.

The premier, as such, has no separate department, but takes charge of one of the more important of the above. The present (1915) premier, Sir Lomer Gouin, is attorney-general.

Each department has a deputy minister, a permanent official, who assists the minister in its management. Under them are the clerks and other employees who compose the civil service of the province.

The executive council as a whole exercises the same control over provincial affairs as the Dominion cabinet does over national affairs. Administrative proposals are made by the premier or other ministers to it. If such receive its approval, they are submitted by the premier to the lieutenant-governor. With his signature they go into effect as "orders-in-council," that is, enactments of the lieutenant-governor-in-council.

4. The Legislature.

Important
The body which makes laws for the province, and thus corresponds to the parliament of the Dominion, is known as the legislature. It consists of the lieutenant-governor and of two chambers, the legislative council and the legislative assembly.

Just as in theory the lieutenant-governor is head of the executive, so is he a member of the legislative branch of the government. All proposals or bills from the chambers must receive his sanction before they can become law.

The legislative council is composed of twenty-four members, each representing a certain district or division of the province. They are appointed by the lieutenant-governor-in-council, and hold their position for life. They must be British subjects, must reside in the district which they represent, and must possess therein property to the value of at least \$4,000.

The legislative assembly consists of eighty-one members, chosen by popular vote in the various electoral districts. Unlike legislative councillors, they require no property qualifications.

Members of both legislative bodies receive a salary of \$1,500 for each session which they attend. The presiding officers, or speakers, are given in addition the sum of \$4,000.

Business is conducted in the legislature in much the same way as in the Dominion parliament. There is a speaker, a clerk of the House, and a sergeant-at-arms. At the opening of a session a "speech from the throne" is read by the lieutenant-governor. Debate is conducted under the same rules as in the Houses at Ottawa. The full term of the legislature is five years. But it may be dissolved sooner by the lieutenant-governor-in-council and a new election held, just as is the case in the Dominion parliament.

5. The Provincial Franchise.

The lists of those who have the "franchise" or the right to vote in the provincial or the Dominion elections are made up from the valuation rolls of the municipalities (see Topic XII., section 9). These lists are revised every year, or, in cities, every second year. Due notice of revision is published, and it is your duty to see

that your name is there, if you are properly qualified.

Important ↓ Those living in the municipality at the time of the revision, who are British subjects and twenty-one years of age, are so qualified, if they are the owners or occupants of immovable property, or the sons of such, or the owners of shipping or fishing tackle worth at least fifty dollars, or the possessors of a monthly income of at least ten dollars. ✓

Important ↓ There are however exceptions. Women, judges and magistrates, Indians living on reserves, persons who have a contract with the government, or who have been absent from the province for more than a year, or who have been declared guilty of some infraction of the election laws, cannot vote.

6. Provincial Elections and Parties.

The elections for the provincial legislature are conducted in much the same way as those for the Dominion parliament. Equal care is taken that the voting shall be secret, and there are similar rules in force as to the marking of ballots by the voters.

In provincial matters the names of the two great political parties are the same as in the field of Dominion affairs. But, although such is the case, the work of the legislature and that of the parliament are so different that it is not uncommon for an elector to vote in favour of one of the parties at provincial elections and in favour of the other at Dominion elections.

7. Provincial Revenues.

The money to meet the expenses of the provincial government comes partly from the treasury of the Dominion, partly from the sale of public lands and of timber, from direct taxes imposed by the provincial government itself—such as succession duties on property inherited, licenses to trade in various articles, taxes on commercial corporations, stamps on legal paper, etc.

According to the terms of the British North America Act, the Dominion must pay to each province annually a certain sum known as the "provincial subsidy." It has been necessary to increase the amount of this subsidy more than once since Confederation. In fact the system

has been found by experience rather unsatisfactory. It was adopted originally as compensation to the colonies when, on entering as provinces into the Dominion they gave up the right of collecting customs and excise duties. As we have seen, the Dominion assumed the provincial debts. Provision was made that if such a debt were less than a certain specified sum, the province should receive five per cent. a year on whatever the difference might be. But from the first there was dissatisfaction with the agreement and a demand for better terms was made. It was finally decided to allow each province, as additional compensation, five per cent. a year on a certain sum. The Dominion also makes a yearly grant to the provincial treasury of eighty cents per head on the population according to the latest census.

Some of the principal items of the provincial revenue and expenditure for the year ending June 30th, 1914, were as follows:

Revenue—

Subsidy from the Dominion	\$2,027,927
Lands and Forests.....	1,777,220
Duties on Successions.....	1,604,479
Licenses, hotels, shops, etc.....	1,027,596
Taxes on Commercial Corporations..	925,093

Expenditure—

Interest on Provincial Debt.....	\$1,204,743
Education	1,435,515
Justice.....	1,025,330
Roads (including loans to municipalities)	3,774,195

Important NOTE.—“Crown Lands.” The provinces that existed separately before union with Canada, derive an important source of revenue from their public lands which were retained by them and not given up to the Dominion. Especially is this the case when these lands are covered with good timber or contain valuable minerals. Thus the province of Quebec by the sale of its timber lands or the timber thereon obtains each year a very large sum of money. The area of such lands has been greatly increased by the annexation of the territory of Ungava in 1912. On the other hand, Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta, which did not exist as original provinces but were given provincial powers by the Dominion, did not receive the public lands within their boundaries but were granted instead a special subsidy.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why may Quebec be called the senior province of the Dominion?
 2. How does it rank among the provinces in area and in population?
 3. Name the lieutenant-governor and the premier.
 4. Of what does the legislature consist? How many members are there in each chamber?
 5. What party is in power? What is its majority in the assembly?
 6. Who have the right to vote in provincial elections?
 7. What are the chief sources of the provincial revenue? How is the subsidy from the Dominion calculated?
 8. Explain the term "crown lands."
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TOPIC XII.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

1. Introduction.

We have up to the present been learning about the government of the nation or of its larger divisions, the provinces. We shall now study the government of the smaller divisions. We have thus far been trying to understand our systems of national and provincial administration. We shall now take up the subject of "municipal government." The word "municipal" is derived from a Latin word which means a town or city having certain special rights of self-government.

2. Kinds of Municipalities.

Municipalities are formed in accordance with laws passed by the provincial legislature. They are of various kinds, counties, cities and towns, townships or parishes and villages. Cities and towns have usually been incorporated under special acts called charters. Now, however, their affairs are regulated in a general way, by the City and Towns Act. Any change from this

to meet local conditions can be made only with permission of the legislature. The affairs of other municipalities are regulated by a general law, the Municipal Code. Counties are sections of the province represented by a member of the legislative assembly, and which also are organized as a municipality. They are divided into smaller local municipalities, such as villages and townships, and sometimes towns and cities. A township must have a population of at least three hundred. A village also must contain three hundred people and have at least forty dwellings within an area of sixty acres or arpents.

3. Government of Municipalities.

The management of the affairs of the various municipalities is in the hands of elective bodies called municipal councils. In the local divisions, villages, townships or parishes, and sometimes in towns, a municipal council consists of seven members. These may be chosen in a body to represent the whole municipality; or the municipality may be divided into wards with a certain number of representatives from each. Their term of office is three years. But in order that

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Industrious there may not be too great a change in the composition of the council at one time, it is provided that two retire in two successive years and three retire in the third year. The members of council choose one of their number to act as presiding officer, or mayor. *Sherry.* He sees to the execution of the ordinances or "by-laws" of the municipality and has general superintendence of all of its affairs. *Sherry.* Another important official chosen by the council, not necessarily one of their own number, is the secretary-treasurer. He conducts the correspondence and keeps the records of the municipality. He collects its taxes and expends its revenue, as directed by the council.

The municipal council of a county consists of the mayors of the various townships and villages within its limits. The presiding officer is called the "warden." His duties and those of the secretary-treasurer are similar to those of the corresponding officials of the township or village.

4. The Work of the Councils.

A municipal government deals with matters that concern us very closely. For instance, it sees that ¹roads and streets are made, ²that bridges

Imp. entail are built,¹ that sidewalks are laid,² that drains and sewers are constructed,³ that parks and pleasure grounds are provided,⁴ that articles of food and drink, sold in shops are of proper quality,⁵ that the public health is safeguarded,⁶ that the property and lives of citizens are protected.⁷ It controls the licenses to sell intoxicating liquors, or it may prohibit sale of such entirely.

In towns and cities there are other matters of the utmost importance that must be attended to,¹ the lighting of the streets,² the supply of pure water,³ the regulation of street traffic by tramways, etc. County councils look after roads and bridges that lie in different local municipalities in the county bounds.⁴ They must settle disputes between such municipalities,⁵ may grant aid to colonization, agriculture, etc.,⁶ and in a general way, may make by-laws on anything that concerns the county as a whole.

The regular meetings of village and township councils are held on the first Monday of each month, and of county councils on the second Wednesday of March, June, September and December.

The more varied and extensive business of towns and cities require more frequent meetings of their councils.

Important A council finds it convenient to choose permanent committees for the year to have charge of such matters as, for example, ¹the municipal finances, ²roads, ³markets, ⁴police, ⁵fire protection.

These committees act as a sort of executive in their particular departments, making reports to council and carrying out its decisions. Special committees are also appointed, as required, for the consideration of any important matter. The rules for the conduct of business in municipal councils are, as far as circumstances permit, the same as those in use in the House of Commons and the House of Assembly.

5. Municipal Taxation.

In order to meet the expenses of municipal government, the council imposes a direct tax on real property and income in the municipality. As a first step it is necessary to determine the value of every man's property, and the amount of all incomes that are taxable. Therefore, during June and July of every third year, three officers

appointed by the council, called "valuators," make an estimate in every case, and record it in a document known as the "valuation roll."

work of valuers.
Since the amount of taxes which an owner will have to pay depends on the assessed value of his property or the amount of his income, it is very important that the work of valuation shall be fairly and accurately done. Hence there is a period allowed for appeal against the amount set by the valuers in any particular case. During this time the roll is accessible to anyone interested. The council then meets to examine it, and may make any change deemed advisable. It decides on any appeal against it by anyone who thinks injustice has been done him. The valuation rolls of the various local municipalities are now forwarded to the secretary-treasurer of the county. At its next meeting the county council compares them to make sure that the valuation made in each bears a just proportion to that made in the others. When this matter is finally settled, each local council decides how much money is needed for the coming year, and so fixes the rate of taxation that must be levied

on the property of the municipality. This estimate must include the amount required by the county as a whole, since the revenue for the latter comes entirely from the local municipalities.

Those who pay rent for but do not own the property which they occupy, are taxed five cents on every dollar of the annual rent.

Local municipalities also levy an annual tax of one dollar, called a "poll" tax, on every man over twenty-one years of age who is not otherwise taxed.

As we have seen, the maintenance of roads is an important duty of the municipality. Often this is provided for in the general assessment of property; but in many municipalities a special assessment is made on the owner to maintain the road which is on his property or from which he immediately benefits.

6. Exemption from Taxation.

In the following instances no taxation is levied for municipal purposes:

1. Property owned by the Crown, the Dominion, the provincial government, or by the municipality.

very important.

2. Property belonging to schools, colleges and universities.

3. Property of religious and charitable institutions.

4. Property used for exhibition purposes by agricultural and horticultural societies.

5. The property of railway companies to which the provincial government has made a grant is relieved of taxation for a period of twenty years thereafter.

6. Salaries of four hundred dollars per annum and less.

7. Municipal Loans.

Sometimes in order to carry out some expensive public undertaking, such, for example, as the construction of a system of water works or the erection of a town hall, a municipal council may think it advisable to borrow money instead of defraying the total expense from the year's taxes. Before a by-law to this effect can be finally passed the consent of the ratepayers must be secured as in an ordinary election. The proposal must also be approved of by the lieutenant-governor-in-council.

8. Municipal Elections.

The election of municipal councillors takes place on the second Monday of January. The meeting of the electors is presided over by some one appointed by the council or by the secretary-treasurer. He calls for nominations and accepts the name of every one proposed by at least two electors. If more are nominated than are to be chosen, the chairman grants a poll and proceeds to register the votes as given. At the close of the election these are counted and the result declared. In the smaller municipalities the election is usually held at the place in which the council is accustomed to meet. Where the number of electors is large, "polling booths" or voting stations are established at various points, just as in Dominion or provincial elections.

If for any reason a municipal election be not held at the proper time, or if the necessary number of councillors be not elected, the lieutenant-governor-in-council, on being officially informed of the fact, appoints from those qualified to act, as many as are necessary to make up the required number.

9. Municipal Franchise.

Important
All those have the right to vote in municipal elections who fulfil the following conditions :

They must be twenty-one years of age and must be British subjects.

✓ Their names must be on the municipal valuation roll as the owners of real estate worth fifty dollars in actual value, or the occupants of property of the annual value of twenty dollars.

They must have paid all municipal and school taxes due from them.

✓ It should be noted that votes are given not only to all men fulfilling the above conditions, but also to unmarried women and widows. Such have votes also in elections for school commissioners or trustees, but not in Dominion or provincial elections.

10. The Government of Montreal.

Important
Much the largest and most important municipality in the province is the city of Montreal. We may, therefore, devote a special section to its government, especially as it possesses some features peculiar to itself. It was formerly

governed by a mayor, elected for a period of two years by the citizens, and by a council of forty-six aldermen or councillors, two being chosen for the same length of time by each of the twenty-three wards into which the city is divided. The council was the legislative body, and the mayor together with various committees of aldermen exercised the executive power.

This system did not always work well. Aldermen frequently worked in the interest of their own particular wards rather than for the good of the city as a whole, and executive committees were too readily influenced by the great companies which had contracts with the city.

An amendment to the Charter was submitted to popular vote. When thus approved of, it was made a law by the legislature. This reduced the City Council in number to twenty-three. It placed the executive power in the hands of a new body, the Board of Control. This consists of the mayor who presides, and of four controllers or commissioners chosen by popular vote to represent the whole city for a period of four years.

The controllers prepare estimates of money required, recommend expenditures, arrange contracts, loans, etc., control civic works, nominate heads of departments and other officials, and suspend or dismiss them for wrong doing. Their recommendations, however, must obtain the approval of the council before they become effective. The mayor receives ten thousand dollars a year, and the controllers seven thousand dollars each.

The new system has improved the government of the city. In Montreal, however, as in many places, the great need is a deeper sense of public duty on the part of the great body of its citizens, a more earnest to vote and to work in harmony for the best interests of the city.

QUESTIONS.

1. What kind of municipality is that in which you live? *country.*
2. How many members of council are there? ⁷ Is your municipality divided into wards? Who is the mayor? *no. Sherrill*
3. Who are entitled to be placed on the electoral list of the municipality? How does the provincial list differ from it?

4. When do the elections take place in your municipality? *Jan. now 3 weeks in May.*

5. What is the rate of taxation? What taxes does your father pay?

6. What matters are under the control of county councils? Of whom are county councils composed?

7. What kinds of property are free from taxation?

8. In what important respect is the government of Montreal different from that of other municipalities of the province?

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TOPIC XIII.

THE COURTS OF LAW.

1. Introduction.

We have been studying thus far how the laws are made. We wish now to learn how they are enforced. The enforcement of the law is the duty of the "judicial power." We have already found what the executive and the legislative powers are, and how they belong to parliament and the legislature. On the other hand, the judicial power belongs, not to parliament, but to certain special bodies called "courts of law." A court consists of a judge with or without the aid of a "jury." A jury is a group of men, usually twelve in number, chosen for the occasion from the district where the sittings of the court are held. The highest courts generally have more than one judge but no jury.

2. English Common Law and Statute Law.

It is necessary to have laws for the many and complex relations that unite men in our modern civilization, such as their business relations, their

family and social relations. If a man lends money, the law has to state how he shall set about collecting it, should the debtor not be willing to pay promptly; if he desires to make a will, the law must tell in what manner such an act can properly be performed; and, if one man speaks ill of another, the law has to declare in how far the latter may be able to find a remedy.

Our system of law has not been made in a day, but has grown up gradually through the long course of centuries, according as various customs and precedents became accepted as fair and just. For judges, in dealing with particular cases that came before them, followed certain general principles of justice, and, as a result of their decisions, there has arisen a great body of law which applies to innumerable matters. This law, which we have inherited from England, we call the "English common law." The common law is at the foundation of the legal system throughout the Dominion except in this province. In order to change the common law or make other laws to suit our own time and country, parliament and the legislature are, as we have

seen, constantly passing new acts or statutes, and these form what is known as the "statute law."

3. Criminal and Civil Law.

There is an important distinction between the laws which the Dominion parliament may make and those which the provincial legislature has power to enact. Parliament alone can make laws that relate to crime and criminals. These are included under the term "criminal law," which has to do with such offences as murder, forgery, theft, etc. The legislature, on the other hand, enacts laws that affect property and civil rights (Topic II). These come under the head of "civil law."

4. The Civil Law of Quebec.

As indicated in paragraph 2, a marked difference exists between the law of Quebec and that of the other provinces. This distinction, however, is to be found only in the civil law. Criminal law, being under the control of Dominion parliament, is uniform throughout the country. The civil law of the other provinces is based on the common law of England. The

civil law of Quebec is largely based on the French law of old Canada, the "Custom of Paris," as it was called, and this in turn, was derived from the principles of old Roman law.

The enjoyment of their own system of law was conceded to the French people of Canada after the Conquest by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. This privilege was confirmed by the Quebec Act of 1774 in respect to civil law, English criminal law being established at the same time.

Even in the civil department English law has gradually made its way. The public rights embodied for instance, in Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights obtain in Quebec as elsewhere. The right of a private person to get redress for wrongs done him by an official in his public capacity, is derived from English and not from French law. Those parts of civil law placed at Confederation under the control of the Dominion parliament, such as regulate banking, commerce, naturalization, etc., are now English rather than French in their character.

But laws essentially French in their origin regulate a wide class of important matters

relating to the holding of property, its disposal by will or by sale, the making of contracts, the solemnization of marriage, etc. For the laws on such in Quebec are quite different from those in other provinces.

It would not be profitable, neither would it be possible within the scope of this book to explain the differences, but one general distinction may be noted. As English common law is largely based on custom, a judge is not guided so much by his own opinion, as by previous decisions or precedents on the particular point in question. French law, on the other hand, has been "codified," that is, has been arranged into an orderly written system, and a judge must be guided by his own judgment in making his decision. The French system is, perhaps, less likely to do an injustice, as one bad decision will in future be avoided rather than repeated. On the other hand it admits of more uncertainty, as lawyers and business men have no precedents to guide them in so making their arrangements as to conform to the law, in case of dispute.

5. A Civil Suit.

The constitution of the various courts of law, and the powers that belong to them, form a somewhat difficult subject. So it will be better at first to follow the proceedings in two supposed cases, and learn in this incidental way what we can about the courts.

Let us first take a civil suit. We shall suppose that we wish to recover a certain amount of money that Mr. B. owes us. We are the "plaintiffs," because we enter the suit. Mr. B. is the "defendant," because he is defending his case. We make a brief statement in a "writ of summons" which we secure from the proper court, and this is "served on" the defendant who has to put in a "defence," that is, give a reason why he ought not to pay. If the defendant were not to put in any defence, judgment would go "by default," and we could then proceed to collect our account by having the goods of the defendant seized and sold.

If the defence has been properly entered, the suit will come up at the next sitting of the court. Although a person may present his own case in

court, it is nearly always better to engage a lawyer for the purpose. It is a lawyer's business to know the law; and no one not trained as he, can possibly bring out so well the important points and avoid making disastrous mistakes. A lawyer is usually consulted before any suit is brought at all, and allowed time to study the case fully. Therefore, we shall suppose that we have engaged the lawyer, Mr. X. The defendant has engaged Mr. Y.

When the day of trial comes, our case may not be the first called. Perhaps the judge may not reach it till the next day. But at last it is called. Our lawyer, or "counsel," opens the case by stating what our claim is. We are asked to take our place as witnesses and give evidence. We are sworn "to tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth." Then by questions our counsel leads us to tell all we know about the circumstances and the nature of the claim. After he is done, the defendant's counsel "cross-questions" us, that is, asks us further questions, intending to bring out any point that is favourable to the defendant's side.

If there are other persons besides ourselves who know anything about the matter, they have been ordered to attend the court, and are now sworn, questioned and cross-questioned. When our witnesses have all been heard, the defendant and his witnesses are sworn, and give their evidence in the same way. Then the lawyers sum up the evidence as a whole, each emphasizing the points that in his opinion favour his side.

With this the case is concluded, and the judge gives his decision at once, or "reserves" the matter for fuller study, and gives his decision later. The side that loses usually pays the costs of the trial, although this is not so invariably. If the loser is not satisfied, he may "appeal" to a higher court. But appeals are expensive, and are not usually taken unless there is good reason to hope that the decision of the higher court will be favourable.

6. A Criminal Case.

Let us now follow the course of a criminal case in the courts. We shall suppose that a murder has been committed. An officer, called

the "coroner," looks into the matter and decides that it is necessary to hold an "inquest," or inquiry. He then summons a jury and has witnesses called, sworn and questioned. After this the jury gives its "verdict," or opinion, as to how the murdered man met his death. If the jury is reasonably certain as to who the guilty person is, it charges him with the crime.

This person is then arrested and brought before a local magistrate. The magistrate may be a "justice of the peace," who is a sort of inferior judge appointed by the provincial government; or if the crime has occurred in a city or town, he may be a regular official with the title of "police magistrate." He goes only so far in the trial of the prisoner as to satisfy himself that a sufficient case has been "made out." He then commits the prisoner to jail to stand his trial at the next session of the criminal court in that county or judicial district.

If it were not a case of murder the accused might be allowed out on "bail" during this time. A prisoner is said to be out on bail when some persons have promised to see that he be

present in court at the proper time, or to pay a certain sum of money as a fine if he is not there. But a man accused of so serious a crime as murder must stay in jail until the court takes up his case.

There is a lawyer appointed by the province to arrange for the proper trial of persons accused of crime. He is called the "crown prosecutor," and he prepares the charge against the prisoner, which is laid before the "grand jury" at the session of the criminal court. This jury does not try the prisoner. It merely examines the evidence against him, and decides whether this evidence is sufficient for sending him to trial. If it decides the evidence is not sufficient, the accused is set at liberty.

But if it concludes that the evidence is sufficient, it is said to bring in a "true bill," and the accused must go for trial before a "petty jury," that is, little jury. This jury is one specially chosen for his case and consists of twelve men. Before he is declared guilty or innocent, all twelve men have to agree. If the jury cannot agree on a verdict, it is dismissed,

and the trial has to begin over again before a new jury.

When the prisoner is brought into the court, the charge against him is read to him, and he is asked to say whether he is guilty or not guilty of the crime. Usually he will say that he is "not guilty." Then the members of the petty jury, already referred to, are chosen from lists furnished by the sheriff. Both the prosecuting counsel and the prisoner's counsel have the right to object to any juror, if it is thought that he may not act fairly either from supposed friendship or supposed enmity towards the prisoner, or from some other cause.

After the jury has been chosen, the trial begins. Proceedings resemble in a general way those already described in civil suits. At the close of the addresses of counsel for each side, the judge sums up the case for the jury, carefully stating what questions they have to decide. In a case of murder it may be that the jury will have to decide whether the accused person is actually the guilty one, and, if he is, whether he committed the murder wilfully, or did it while

trying to defend himself against attack from the murdered man.

The jury then retire and discuss the case among themselves, until they come to a decision. Then they return to the court-room, and their leader, called the "foreman," announces whether they have found the prisoner "guilty" or "not guilty." The judge, in accordance with the verdict, either sentences the prisoner or allows him to go free.

In case there is any important point of law involved, an appeal may be taken to a higher court. Until this appeal is decided, the sentence is not carried out. Sometimes, when some serious mistake has been made, a new trial may be ordered.

7. Pardons.

known. The power to pardon a person convicted of a crime rests with the Minister of Justice of the Dominion. If there is good reason for showing mercy in a special case, the minister recommends to the governor-general that the prisoner receive a full pardon, or that he be pardoned after a certain time.

8. Summary Trial.

known. Instead of waiting for the regular sitting of a court, an accused person may, in the case of lesser crimes, "elect," that is, choose to be tried at once by a judge without a jury. In this event, the matter can be very speedily dealt with.

9. The Law Courts of Quebec.

The law, criminal and civil, is administered by various courts which sit at different places. For this purpose the province is divided into twenty-three judicial districts, with a court-house and a jail in the chief place of each.

These courts are as follows:

1. The Commissioners' Court. *Provincial.*
2. The Recorder's Court and the Police Court.
- Mr. Thomas* 3. The Court of Justices of the Peace.
4. The Court of Sessions.
5. The District Magistrate's Court.
6. The Circuit Court.
7. The Superior Court. *Federal.*
8. The Court of King's Bench.

Important. The jurisdiction, or authority, of the first five of these courts is local, extending over a district,

a town or a city; the jurisdiction of the last three is general, extending over the whole province. The judges of the first group are appointed by the provincial government, those of the second group by the Dominion government.

Supreme. We should remember, however, that although legislation in criminal law and the appointment of the higher judges lies with the Dominion, the administration of justice, the maintenance of court-houses and the appointment of the officials, such as sheriffs, etc., come within the scope of provincial authority.

The Commissioners' Court try cases for the recovery of debts in amount not exceeding thirty-five dollars.

The Recorder's Court and the Police Court have jurisdiction only in the city or town for which their judges are appointed. They try cases of offence against civic by-laws and minor criminal cases.

Justices of the Peace. Justices of the Peace issue warrants of arrest in criminal cases. With them actions can be entered for the recovery of school taxes, and

for damages caused by domestic animals, etc. Justices of the Peace sitting together as a Court of Sessions deal with acts that tend to disturb the peace and good order of the community.

The District Magistrate's Court has jurisdiction over a county or district somewhat corresponding to that of the Recorder's Court of a city. It settles disputes between tenants and owners involving amounts not over fifty dollars and suits for the recovery of municipal taxes, etc.

The Circuit Court is presided over by a judge of the Superior Court and sits in the chief place of each judicial district. In Montreal, however, special judges are appointed for the Circuit Court. It tries cases involving amounts not over one hundred dollars, and in rural districts not over two hundred dollars.

The Superior Court sits in civil suits which are above the jurisdiction of circuit courts. It consists of two bodies of judges, one for the Montreal group of judicial districts and one for the Quebec group. Either of the parties to a suit for over one thousand dollars can demand a trial by a judge and jury.

Three of the judges of this court may sit in Montreal or in Quebec as a Court of Review to hear cases appealed from the Circuit Courts, or from the Superior Court where the amount involved is not over five hundred dollars.

Important The Court of King's Bench consists of a chief-justice and five other judges. It sits as a court of appeal at specified dates in Montreal or in Quebec alternately, to hear civil or criminal cases from the lower courts. Criminal cases are tried, in the first instance, in Montreal and Quebec, by a judge of this court with a jury, and in other districts, by a judge of the Superior Court with a jury.

In jury trials in this province, one of the parties may demand that only jurors speaking English, or speaking French be chosen, according as the language of both parties is English or French. When one party speaks English and one French, either may demand a mixed jury of six English-speaking and six French-speaking jurors.

The importance of language.
It must be noted that the question of language is an important one in this province. Proceedings

in legislative and judicial bodies may be carried on in either language. But all legal documents, records and proclamations must be recorded in both languages, except in cases where all concerned are either English-speaking or French-speaking.

10. The Supreme Court of Canada.

Above the courts of the provinces come those of the Dominion. Of the latter the most important is the Supreme Court. It consists of the Chief Justice of Canada and five other judges. Two of the six must be from the province of Quebec. Appeals may be taken to it from the courts of the province in cases where the amount involved is over two thousand dollars. This court has, moreover, the duty of interpreting our constitution, whenever difficulties arise. The Dominion government may refer to it any such question in order to obtain its opinion.

11. The Privy Council.

Important. Finally, above all the courts of the Empire, *all cabinet* stands a court in England called the "Judicial Committee of the Privy Council," or more briefly,

the "Privy Council." As may be inferred from the name, the judges of this court are members of His Majesty's Privy Council in Great Britain (not the Privy Council of Canada described under Topic V.), and are considered to form a division of that ancient body. An appeal to the Privy Council is allowed from Quebec only, when the case involves a sum exceeding five thousand dollars,² or when it is a question of fees, etc., payable to the Crown,³ or when a title to lands is involved. Permission to appeal a case from the Supreme Court of Canada is granted only by the Privy Council itself, and is given only when it involves an important point of law or a matter of great public importance.

known important

Notes.—The "sheriff" is the chief executive officer of the law in a county or a judicial district, who sees that the sentences and judgments of the court are carried out. He also summons the juries and has charge of the jail. A "summons" is a written command issued to a defendant or a witness to appear before a court. A "warrant" is a document giving authority to a person to do a certain thing, such as the arrest of one accused of a crime.

et

The "Exchequer Court of Canada." This is a court of the Dominion consisting of one judge who resides in Ottawa. It has jurisdiction in all claims against the Crown as well as in cases relating to copyright and trade-mark. The presiding judge visits the different parts of the Dominion from time to time to try cases.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the difference between criminal law and civil law, and between English common law and statute law?

2. Write an account of an imaginary trial in which the plaintiff is suing the defendant for debt. Give full particulars of the case.

3. How does the civil law of Quebec differ from that of the other provinces?

4. Name the chief courts of the province of Quebec. What is the jurisdiction of each? By whom are the judges for each appointed?

5. Name some of the judges who sit in the judicial district in which you live.

6. What kinds of cases can be appealed to the Supreme Court of Canada? To the Privy Council?

Mr. Alex Smail. = sheriff

QUEBEC EDITION.

TOPIC XIV.

EDUCATION.

1. Introduction.

All the pupils who read this book will no doubt wish to learn a little about the schools, colleges and universities of the province. The history of education in Canada begins with the establishment by the Jesuit priests of the *petite école* (little school) at Quebec in 1635. Here two of their order, Father Lalement and Father Le Jeune, taught French and Indian boys for years. A Latin course was added which developed into the Quebec College, and continued its work till the time of the Conquest in 1759. Shortly after, the Ursuline nuns in their convent commenced a similar work for girls. In Montreal the first colonists were too much occupied with the defence of the little settlement against the Iroquois to think much of education. Indeed in those strenuous times the children who survived infancy were few in number. But in 1657, fifteen years after the foundation, Marguerite Bourgeoys, who came to Canada to devote her

life to the welfare of its people, opened a school for boys and girls in a stable, loaned for the purpose by Maisonneuve, the governor of the town. From these humble beginnings has grown the great system of to-day, which embraces in the province seven thousand schools, fifteen thousand teachers and more than four hundred and twenty-five thousand pupils.

2. The Council of Public Instruction.

Important
This body directs the educational system of the province. It makes regulations, arranges the course of study, authorizes text-books, controls normal schools for the training of teachers, appoints inspectors of schools, etc. Such acts are subject to the approval of the lieutenant-governor-in-council.

Dr. Percival
The Council of Public Instruction is presided over by the superintendent of education who is its chief executive officer, having the general administration of its enactments.

As we have seen (page 15), the separate schools for Protestants and Roman Catholics in Canada before Confederation have by the British North America Act been continued in

Quebec Quebec (as in Ontario). These are conducted under the one Education Act, but are in part under separate administration. The Council is divided into the Protestant Committee and the Roman Catholic Committee. It retains under its own control all matters that affect the joint interests of both denominations, such as the organization of school municipalities, school taxes, appointment and duties of school inspectors, pensions for teachers, etc., and hands over to the proper committee what concerns only the one denomination or the other, such as the arranging the course of studies and the authorization of text-books.

The Roman Catholic Committee consists of the Roman Catholic bishops, and an equal number of laymen appointed by the lieutenant-governor-in-council. There are also four associate members representing the teaching profession.

The members of the Protestant Committee equal in number the Roman Catholic laymen, and are appointed in the same way. They may appoint six associate members, and the Protestant Teachers' Association may choose a representative on the Committee. Associate

members of the Committees, however, are not members of the Council of Public Instruction.

The Committees sit each with its own chairman and secretary. The secretaries act conjointly as such for the Council, and rank as deputy ministers of the department of education.

3. The School Municipality.

Having learned something of the body which may be called the head of the school system, we shall now turn to its basis, the school municipality. This is a division distinct from the municipality, described under Topic XII., being organized for educational purposes only. Their limits may, or may not be the same. The school municipality is created by the lieutenant-governor-in-council at the request of the ratepayers, and on the recommendation of the Council of Public Instruction.

School matters are administered by a board of school commissioners elected by the ratepayers on the valuation roll, on the first Monday of July, for a period of three years. It is the duty of the board to divide the municipality into school districts, and to maintain a school in each.

A district must not be more than five miles in length or breadth, and must have at least twenty children between the ages of five and sixteen years. If the population be scattered, however, and the children few, they may be conveyed at public expense to a school in another district.

The commissioners levy the local school taxes, fix the monthly fees for school children, build and maintain school-houses, employ teachers and see that the schools are conducted in accordance with school laws.

4. Dissident Schools.

Protestant ratepayers in a school municipality having Roman Catholic schools, or Roman Catholic ratepayers in one having Protestant schools, may by giving notice to the school commissioners withdraw their support, and organize schools for children of their own religious belief. As distinguished from the former, these are called "dissident" schools. They are administered by a board of three trustees, who are elected in the same way as the five commissioners mentioned above, and who have the same authority.

In Montreal the provincial government appoints three members to each of the two school boards and the city council chooses the same number. The Roman Catholic board has, in addition, three members named by the Roman Catholic archbishop. These boards, too, are granted wider authority in many respects than is exercised elsewhere.

5. School Revenues.

The revenues at the disposal of the board of commissioners or of trustees are derived from two sources,¹ municipal or local,² and provincial. The local revenues are school taxes assessed by the board on the property of the ratepayers, and school fees which are payable monthly for the children of the district. Fees are not, however, exacted from the poor, or for children unable through illness to attend school. In Montreal no fees are required for pupils attending the public schools which include the first seven years of the school course.

The school assessment in Montreal is collected for both boards by the civic government. It

amounts to five mills per dollar on the valuation rolls. Each board receives what has been paid by its own supporters. The taxes paid by joint stock companies, however, is divided in the proportion of population.

A large sum (see page 111) is yearly voted by the provincial legislature. The general fund is divided among the school municipalities in proportion to population. Each of such shares is subdivided among the various schools in the municipality in the proportion of the attendance of pupils. There is also a grant for "Superior Education" which is divided in the proportion of Protestant and Roman Catholic population between the respective Committees of Public Instruction to be distributed to the various universities, colleges, seminaries, academies, etc.

6. The Training of Teachers.

To train those who wish to qualify themselves for the profession of teaching, eleven normal schools have been established. The one Protestant school for teachers is connected with Macdonald College at Ste. Anne de Bellevue. For Roman Catholics there are ten. Jacques

Normal School at Montreal, and Laval at Quebec, prepare both male and female teachers, and eight others, established at different points by various orders of nuns, train females only.

Two Central Boards of Examiners have been appointed, one for Protestants and one for Roman Catholics, to examine candidates, and to grant diplomas or licenses to teach, who show themselves duly qualified. Roman Catholic members of certain religious orders are authorized to teach without such a license in schools of their own belief. The Protestant Committee, too, grants temporary permits to teach under certain conditions.

7. School Inspectors.

The link between the schools and the central controlling authority is supplied by the school inspectors. They are appointed by the lieutenant-governor-in-council on the recommendation of the superintendent of public instruction. The inspector visits the schools of the district to which he is appointed, examines registers of attendance at the school and the accounts of the secretary-treasurer, and, in general, sees that

school affairs are managed in accordance with the law.

8. Academies and High Schools.

By far the greater number of schools in the province cover only the earlier years of the course of study. Such are called elementary schools. Those which take up the last three or four years of the course are about two hundred and fifty in number and are called academies or high schools. The latter term is applied to the Protestant institutions of Montreal, Quebec and Westmount.

High schools and academies in the cities and larger towns are usually under the control of the municipal school board just as the public schools are. Elsewhere an academy may be supported by a group of school municipalities. The chairmen of the school boards then meet as a board of delegates and choose three of their number to act as its board of trustees. This body has the usual powers of a board of commissioners.

9. Special Schools.

In addition to the schools following the regular course, other institutions have been

established which give special training in "vocational" or industrial work. Just as the college gives professional training to the engineer, the lawyer, the physician, so these schools give preparation for the various vocations or life-work of the industrial classes.

Some of these are conducted by private parties, but many have been established by the provincial government. It has built and equipped at great cost the magnificent Technical Schools at Montreal and Quebec. Here courses are given in machine work, carpentry, plumbing, drawing, chemistry, cooking, etc. A similar but smaller institution has been opened at Shawinigan to train workmen for the important industries of the neighbourhood.

For those whose school course has been limited, and who must work for their living by day, night schools are provided in the large centres of population. In some, only elementary school subjects are taught, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, etc. At government expense and under the management of the Council of Arts and Manufactures, fifty free vocational classes have been opened in eleven cities and towns,

with an annual attendance of over two thousand five hundred. In Montreal the Technical Institute, which receives grants from the province and the city, has established Evening Classes in applied mathematics, industrial drawing, chemistry, building construction, carpentry, metal-work, electrical work, cookery, dress-making, millinery, where the average enrolment is between fourteen and fifteen hundred.

10. Colleges and Universities.

Students who have completed the full school course in a high school or academy may continue their studies in a college or university. There is a distinction between these terms. 1. A "college" is an institution where teaching is carried on, while a "university" conducts examinations and confers degrees. A number of colleges, each giving its own course, may be grouped together into a university. Both terms may be applied to the same institution if it exercises both functions.

At the university the student may choose from a variety of "faculties," or departments. An important one is Arts, which gives a general

training in languages, mathematics, science, history, philosophy, etc. Many students take the Arts course as a preparation for other courses leading to the learned professions, such as Law, Medicine, Applied Science, Theology.

There are in the province two universities, which are most largely attended by Protestants, McGill in Montreal, and Bishop's College at Lennoxville, and one for Roman Catholics, Laval, at Quebec!

11. McGill University.

This great institution ranks among the foremost on the continent. Its students, fifteen hundred in number, are drawn not only from the various provinces of Canada, but also from Great Britain, the United States and the West Indies. It grants degrees in Arts, Applied Science, Medicine, Law, Dental Surgery and Music. With it are "affiliated" the theological colleges of the Anglican, Presbyterian, Methodist and Congregational denominations.

McGill receives a grant from the provincial government, but its main support has always

come from private benefactors. The founder, James McGill, a Montreal merchant who died in 1813, left forty-six acres of land and £10,000 to endow a university. It was not opened till 1829, when classes in medicine were organized. Its real history, however, dates from 1855, when J. W. Dawson (afterwards Sir William), became its principal. During the forty years of his rule the university made great progress. This expansion, continued under his successor, Sir William Peterson, has been rendered possible by the magnificent donations of friends, especially of its chancellors, Lord Strathcona and Sir William Macdonald. In 1911 a general appeal was made for funds necessary to its work. So well was that work appreciated by the public, that the sum of \$1,550,000 was raised in less than a week, the greater part being subscribed in Montreal.

12. Macdonald College.

Perhaps the most important institution affiliated with McGill University is Macdonald College. It was founded by Sir William Macdonald, the benefactor of McGill, and opened

at Ste. Anne de Bellevue in 1907. It is primarily a school of agriculture, and was intended to improve the conditions of farming in the province of Quebec, by giving theoretical and practical training in all branches, at the lowest possible cost to those intending to make agriculture their life-work. For this purpose 561 acres of fine farming land were purchased, and college buildings, residences, barns, and other farm buildings were erected thereon. The whole cost was over two million dollars. A School of Domestic Science was added, and the Protestant Normal School was removed thither from Montreal. To meet the annual cost of maintenance, the generous donor endowed the institution with another two millions.

Under such favouring conditions the college has attracted a great number of students in all departments, and already the hopes of the founder as to its educational influence in the province are being fulfilled.

13. Bishop's College.

This institution, founded in 1843, is much smaller than McGill. It now confines itself to

courses in arts and theology. It is closely connected with the Anglican church. Most of its students are drawn from the English population of the Eastern Townships. Attached to the college is the well-known Bishop's College Preparatory School, modelled on the famous English "public schools" such as Eton, Harrow and Rugby.

14. Laval University.

This great centre of Roman Catholic learning is named after the first bishop of old Canada. Although it did not receive the degree-conferring power which marks a university until 1852, it is the representative and the successor of the *Grand Seminaire* of Quebec which after the Conquest in 1759 continued the work of the Jesuit College of the French period.

Laval has faculties in Arts, Law, Medicine and Theology. Affiliated with it are twenty classical colleges scattered throughout the province. These are controlled by the clergy, who also supply the greater proportion of the teaching staffs. They give a good course preparatory for the more advanced work of the university itself.

In 1876, a branch of this university was opened in Montreal, containing the same faculties. With it are affiliated various institutions, such as the Polytechnic School, the School of Dental Surgery, the School for Higher Commercial Studies, the School of Pharmacy, etc. The total number of the students of Laval University is over two thousand.

QUESTIONS.

1. What can you tell of the earliest schools in the province?
2. What is a school municipality? Explain how it is established.
3. What different educational bodies exercise authority over the school which you attend? Give the powers of each. Name some of the members of each.
4. What is meant by separate schools? What is the difference between school commissioners and school trustees?
5. How are the schools of the province supported? What is the rate of school taxation in your municipality?
6. Name the superintendent of education in this province.
7. What is the difference between a college and a university?

8. Name the faculties or departments of McGill University.

9. Of what benefit to the province is a great university like McGill or Laval?

10. Mention some men who have been prominent in the history of education in the province of Quebec.

DUTIES OF THE CITIZEN.

You have in this book been studying chiefly the powers and duties of those who govern. But it must always be remembered that the ordinary citizen has powers and duties as well. He must not sit down quietly, and allow the affairs of state to go on, without feeling that he has some responsibility. Therefore, though you may be only one person in the vast total of the population, yet you have your duties to perform.

The first one is to try to understand as well as you can our system of government, and to keep yourself informed as to all the important acts of those who are in authority. In your study of public affairs you will be led beyond the bounds of the Canadian Dominion, for we have the advantage of living in a country which is part of a great empire. As you come to know better the outside world of nations, the more confident you will be of the value of our position.

Since Canada is now assuming in a definite way the duties of empire, there is a certain imperial feeling that we should strive to develop. The British Empire is so vast that it

contains within itself nations of all languages and all religions. As a citizen of the Empire you should, therefore, have respect and toleration for the opinions of others. Our Empire cannot long continue to exist, unless it is something for which our brother nations may all have an ardent loyalty, whatever may be their creed, race or tongue. This imperial feeling will also help us in our national affairs, for it will enable us to be sympathetic with our fellow citizens throughout the Dominion.

In Canada we have what has been said by enthusiastic observers to be the most perfect constitution yet devised by man. It seems to possess all the advantages of the noble constitution of the American Republic, yet with few of the latter's defects. But constitutions are not worth the paper they are written on, and precedents not worth the time spent in remembering and recording them, if the citizens do not take an interest in the affairs of the state. And the same is true all the way down from national government to the management of the public business of the municipality and of the school division. Therefore, your second duty as a

citizen is to put your knowledge of the nation and its government to practical use by taking an active part in politics.

The most effective way to make your influence felt in politics is to become a member of a party and to attend its meetings. Then you will be able to do something to secure the nomination of good, honest men for parliament and the legislature, and to check the tendency to employ improper means in the conduct of an election campaign. There is often so much at stake in an election, that many men are willing to spend a large amount of money and to make use of all kinds of dishonourable methods rather than run the risk of losing. Moreover, various great business enterprises are ready to contribute money lavishly to election funds, if they have hopes thereby of securing favours from parliament, legislature, or council. So every citizen who loves his country should try to discover and oppose all tendencies to evil-doing in the party to which he belongs.

A third duty incumbent on you as a citizen is to be ready to assist, so far as you are able,

all good causes. You ought never to oppose them by speaking ill of them or by making them objects of ridicule. One of these causes is the thorough education of all citizens. It is the common, everyday people that make the governments, good or bad. Every person should have in his early life an opportunity to receive all the educational training that is possible for him, and within the power of the state to give. It will be found that the remedies for the evils of government and of society do not lie in the under-education of the masses of the people. On the other hand, there is no need to fear over-education, if the instruction given is of the right kind.

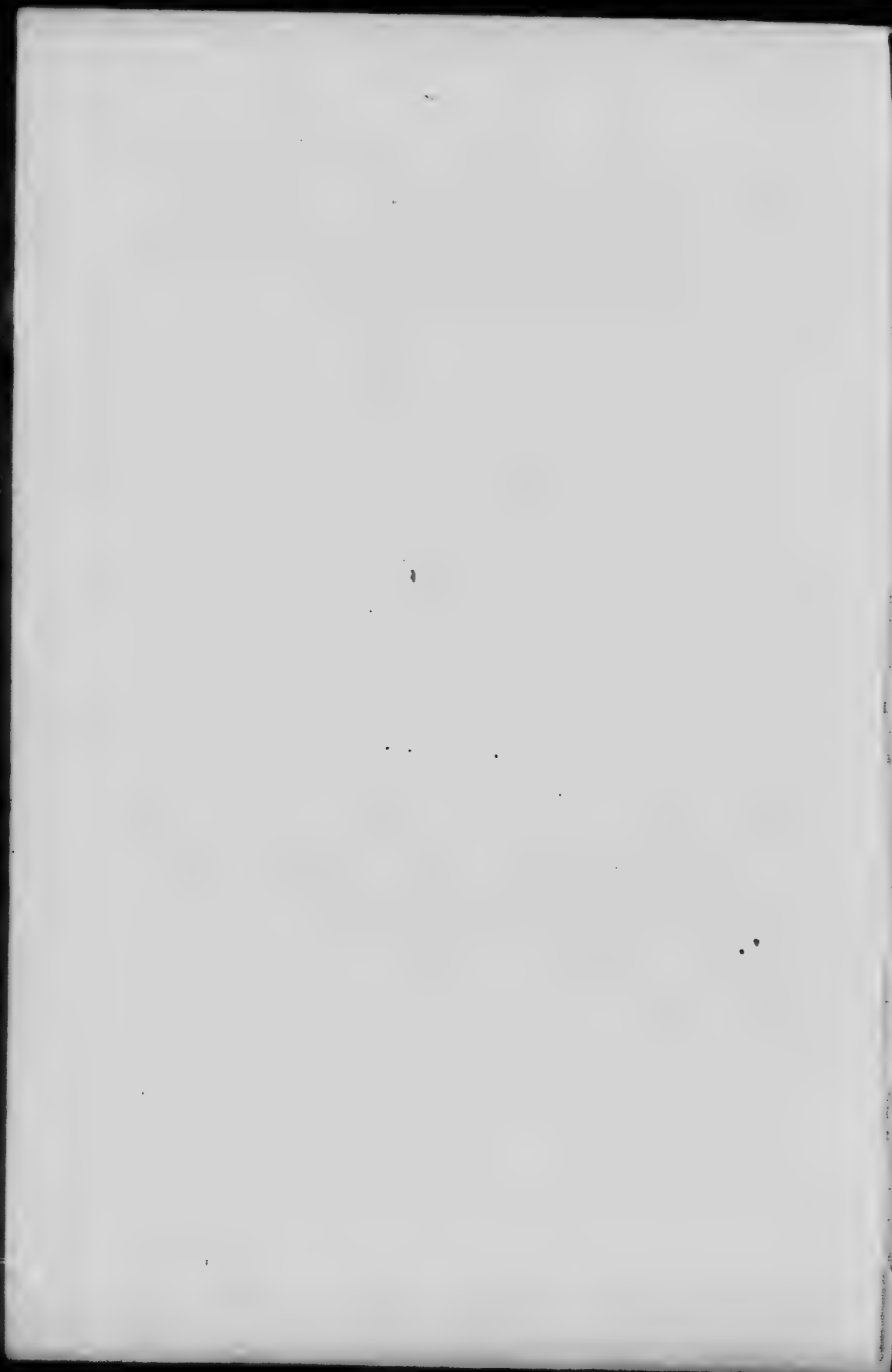
Another good cause of which you should speak no ill, is the effort which is being constantly made to lessen the evil of intemperance in our country. Our race from ancient times has suffered injury from the habit of drinking intoxicants to excess. It has become evident that it is at last possible for us to rid our people of this age-long curse. But the most important of all causes which we should support is that of religion. A nation that scoffs at religion is in

grave peril. Nothing can be found to take its place in the life of the people. It seems to be the only force strong enough to resist those tendencies which, if unchecked, will bring on rapid national decay and ruin.

The last duty of the citizen which we have occasion to mention, is that of endeavouring to lessen the cruelty of our civilization. When we read the history of early times, we are overpowered at the amount of suffering that seems to have been caused needlessly. In the ordinary pursuit of business and pleasure horrible and unnatural things were done. Probably some time in the future a similar charge will be brought against our own age. It would be well, if each day every one of us would think of the cruel things that we have seen done or that we ourselves have done, and then try to discover how much of the suffering thus caused might have been prevented. There is hardly any doubt that, if such a course were consistently followed, we should soon have a bright and happy world.

Rear up a nation firm and just,
A shrine of Liberty ;
Raise up the earth-trod from the dust,
And make them strong and free,
Till none in all her wide domain
Be overwrought by power,
And they from every clime and strain
May bless her natal hour !
The millions in the future's hand
Look with all hope to you.
It is your duty to your land :
Canadians, be true !

Love her who guards you well and brave,
Unfeignèd loyally.
It is your right some day to have
With her th' enthroning sea,
The sway of fertile plain and isle,
The swarming homes of men,
Whom to defend and teach meanwhile
'Twill rest upon you then.
Love her howe'er her fate be cast,
And ever faithful do
Your duty to the Empire vast.
Canadians, be true !



APPENDIX I

PARLIAMENTARY TITLES.

1. Words that Precede the Name.

We speak of "His Majesty the King," "His Excellency the Governor-General," and "His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor."

The prime minister of the Dominion and the other cabinet ministers (whether at present in office or retired) have, as members of the Canadian Privy Council, the right to be styled "The Honourable." Some, however, have also been made members of the British Privy Council, and have, therefore, the title, "The Right Honourable."

The provincial premiers and the other members of the executive councils are styled "The Honourable."

A member of the Dominion Senate has the title, "The Honourable Senator."

The speakers of parliament and the legislatures have their names preceded by "The Honourable."

2. Letters that Follow the Name.

A member of the Dominion parliament is entitled to the use of the letters M.P. (that is, Member of Parliament).

In many of the provinces a member of a provincial legislature employs the form M.P.P. (that is, Member of Provincial "Parliament"). It may be observed that we do not now apply the term "parliament" to a provincial legislature. Therefore, it would be more correct, if we wrote M.L. (Member of Legislature) or M.P.L. (Member of Provincial Legislature), but these forms have never been adopted.

In Saskatchewan the letters used are M.L.A. (Member of the Legislative Assembly).

In the provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia, where there are two houses in the legislature, members of the legislative council and those of the legislative assembly are sometimes given the distinguishing titles M.L.C. and M.L.A., respectively.

APPENDIX II.

SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER.

This book is intended to provide two years' work in the subject. During the first year the pupil should gain a general acquaintance with our government in its many divisions and learn to understand the meaning of the unfamiliar terms. The second year's work may include, in addition to a more thorough study of the topics treated in the book itself, a little independent investigation of questions of a more advanced character. A short list of such questions is given under Appendix IV. Many others will readily occur to the mind of the teacher. In order to obtain the necessary information pupils should be encouraged to consult the library (there should be one in every school), the newspapers, reports of governments and municipal councils, and their parents or older friends. It will probably surprise the teacher to find what an interest some will take in work of this kind. If a meeting of a mock council or parliament can be organized with the help of the senior scholars, the interest will be greatly increased.

There have been inserted in the book the most famous portions of the political poems of Tennyson. Certain lines in them express so perfectly some of the maxims of government that they are becoming part of our ordinary language.

In teaching civics, the purpose is not so much to load the pupil with knowledge, as to inspire within him a never-dying interest in the affairs of the nation. Hence, do not ask him to learn by heart such lists as occur under Topics II and XII. Rather let him acquire, through frequent reference, a practical acquaintance with them.

APPENDIX III.

A BRIEF BIBLIOGRAPHY.

This list may be useful to the teacher, as it includes the names of books very easily obtained.

1. Necessary Books.

How Canada is Governed, Bourinot. Contains the British North America Act in full.

Canadian Almanac for the current year. Contains lists of British and Canadian cabinet ministers, of members of parliament and legislatures, of judges and

sheriffs, and of municipalities and their officers, the customs tariff in full, and an account of the British Army, the British Navy, and the Canadian Militia.

2. Helpful Books.

The English Constitution, Bagehot. Contrasts the British and American systems of government.

Europe in the Nineteenth Century, Judson. Gives brief accounts of the constitutions of the principal countries of Europe.

School Civics with Civics of New York State, Boynton. Contains the constitutions of the United States and New York.

3. For More Advanced Study.

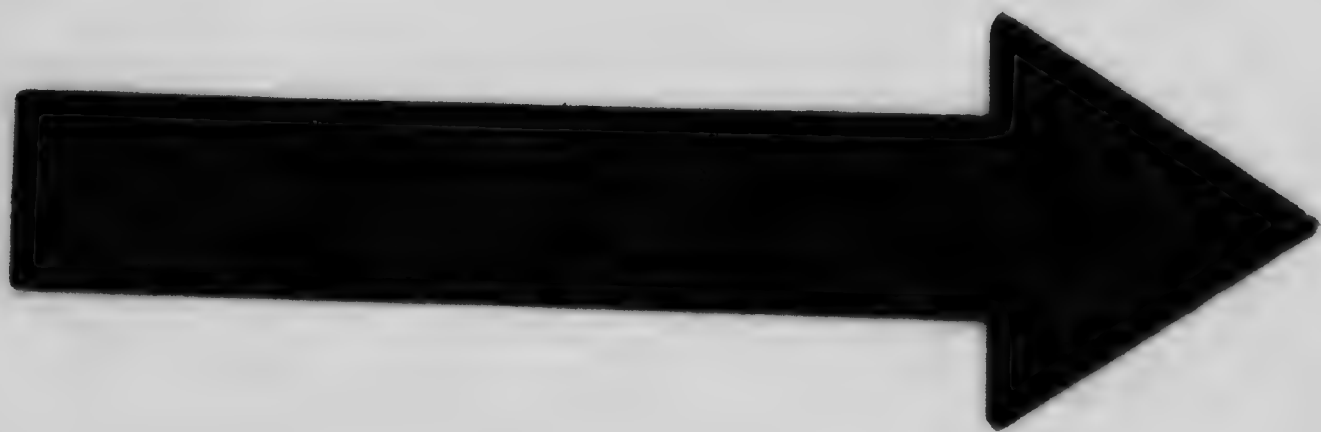
American Commonwealth, Bryce, 2 vols. Interesting and invaluable.

Canadian Annual Review, Hopkins. The volume for each year gives an excellent account of public events.

Letters of Queen Victoria, 3 vols.

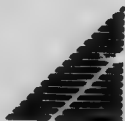
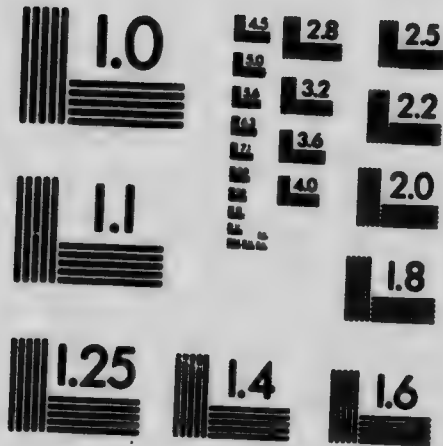
Life of Gladstone, Morley, 2 vols.

(These two books shed light on the development of the English constitution in the nineteenth century.)



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The Statutes of the Dominion and the Province. Copies of special statutes may be obtained from the various government offices, or from the King's printer, either *gratis* or on the payment of a small sum.

Canada Year Book, published by the Census and Statistics Office, Ottawa. Contains all kinds of statistical information.

APPENDIX IV.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY.

(For Advanced Pupils.)

TOPIC I.

1. Look up in the dictionary or elsewhere the meaning of the following: aristocracy, aristocratic, democracy, democratic, oligarchy, oligarchic, anarchy, anarchist, socialism, socialist, autocrat, autocracy, autocratic.
2. Find out the names of the rulers of the great powers of the world.
3. Discover something about the government of the countries commonly mentioned in the newspapers.
4. Read the lives of Queen Victoria and Abraham Lincoln.
5. What do you think is the best form of government? Give your reasons.

TOPIC II.

1. To which of the two, the Dominion or the province, belong those powers which are not definitely assigned in

the constitution? Show how our constitution differs from that of the United States in this respect.

2. Discuss the value and dangers of the power of disallowance.

3. Give an account of the negotiations that led up to confederation.

4. "The laws of our province have much more to do with our ordinary life and its happiness than have the laws of the Dominion." Discuss this statement.

5. Find out what you can about the federal constitutions of the Commonwealth of Australia and the Union of South Africa.

TOPIC III.

1. Give a brief account of the Governors-General of Canada since Confederation.

2. Compare the duties of the Governor-General of Canada with those of the president of the United States and the president of France.

3. What would be the advantages and disadvantages of the appointment of a Canadian as Governor-General?

4. Would it be advisable to have the Governor-General elected by popular vote?

5. What are the arguments in favour of retaining the Senate?

6. How do you think the Senate could best be "reformed"?

7. What difficulties may arise, if the leader of the government or a large proportion of his cabinet belong to the Senate?

TOPIC IV.

1. Read over the speech from the throne given at the opening of the last session of parliament, and make notes as to its form and contents.
2. What corresponds at Washington to our "speech from the throne"?
3. Give an account of the usual proceedings in the House of Commons on the opening day of the session.
4. Discuss the question of the supremacy of the House of Commons in our system of government.
5. Give an account of the duties of the speaker of the House of Commons.
6. Describe how a debate is conducted in parliament.
7. What are the advantages of committees in the work of the House?

TOPIC V.

1. Trace briefly the origin of the cabinet in English history.
2. Compare our cabinet with the American cabinet.
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Canadian cabinet as an instrument of government?
4. What difference is there between the position of a premier under our system and that of a president under the American system?
5. What foreign nations have adopted the British cabinet system?
6. Why is it necessary that all members of the cabinet should be in agreement on important questions?

TOPIC VI.

1. Make out a list of important public questions now before the people of Canada.
2. What would be the result in our system of government, if political parties ceased to exist?
3. What are the advantages and the disadvantages of the party system of government?
4. What is a coalition government? Have we ever had a coalition government in the Dominion?
5. What were the platforms of the two parties at the last Dominion elections?
6. Write an article favouring the policy of one of the parties.

TOPIC VII.

1. Find how long the last session of parliament lasted. Indicate briefly what business was done during the session.
2. On what dates and in what years are federal elections held in the United States?
3. What would be the result in our system of government, if elections were held on fixed dates as in the United States?
4. How many parliaments have we had since confederation? Find what was the length of each and the year of dissolution.
5. What are the names of the premiers since confederation? How did each come to give up office?
6. Give an account of a by-election, if one has been held in your constituency recently.

TOPIC VIII.

1. What are the names of the present members of the cabinet and their departments?
2. Describe the system of "patronage" and its evils.
3. Is management by a board of commissioners an advantage in the case of a public enterprise?
4. Give a brief account of our militia system.
5. What difficulties have arisen in connection with the civil service?
6. Discuss the problem of "strikes."
7. Write a brief account of the development of our railway and canal systems.

TOPIC IX.

1. What are the dangers of a heavy national debt? What is the amount of the national debt of Canada?
2. What is the annual expenditure of the Dominion? Mention the important items of the expenditure.
3. Would it be advisable to adopt a system of direct taxation for the Dominion? Give reasons for your answer.
4. Discuss briefly the Canadian tariff question.
5. Make a note of the important points in the last budget speech.
6. How are customs and excise duties collected?

TOPIC X.

1. Tell how you would proceed at the bank in depositing money and in withdrawing it.
2. What are the merits of the Canadian banking system?

TOPIC XI.

1. Who are the members of the provincial executive and what are their departments?
2. What are the policies of the political parties in provincial matters?
3. What are the merits and defects of the system of Dominion subsidies to the provinces?
4. Would it be better if the Dominion and the provincial political parties were entirely separate from each other?

TOPIC XII.

1. What is the name, size and population of your municipality?
2. Write a brief history of your municipality since its organization.
3. Describe its physical features and its industries.
4. Who are the members of the council?
5. Give an account of the last municipal election.
6. What are the important questions in municipal politics?
7. Mention some of the property exempt from taxation in your municipality.
8. What are the chief items in the expenditure of your municipality? What is the amount of the expenditure. Is your municipality in debt?
9. Describe the method of assessment in your municipality.

TOPIC XIII.

1. In what judicial district do you live? Who is the sheriff? Who are the judges of the county court? What is the name of the nearest place where court is usually held?

2. Write a note on the police force of your municipality.

3. Mention an important case that has gone to the Privy Council in England for final decision.

TOPIC XIV.

1. Describe your school and grounds. What was the cost of the building? What improvements are most needed, and how much would they probably cost? What has been the cost of the furniture and equipment of your schoolroom?

2. How much money does your school district (division or section) receive in grants, and what is its expenditure? What is the rate of taxation for school purposes?

3. Where is the nearest high school (collegiate institute or academy)? Tell what you can about it.

4. Give an account of the university, or universities, of the province, and of the agricultural college.

5. What are the advantages of a good education?

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